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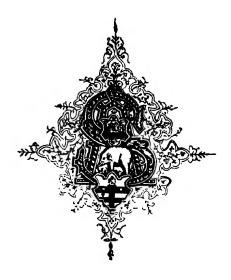
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PART I.—JANUARY

The Portuguese and Turks in the Indian Ocean in the Sixteenth Century

By M. LONGWORTH DAMES

In his paper L'Arrivée des Portugais en Chine, published in T'oung Pao in 1912, M. Cordier, before giving a more detailed account of the events in the Further East following on the taking of Malacca in 1511, gave a lucid sketch of the events accompanying the first establishment of Portuguese power in Eastern seas. I consider that these events require to be further set forth, for as far as I am aware the existing histories do not give any adequate and consecutive account of the struggle for the mastery of the Arabian Sea carried out by the Portuguese against the Muhammadan states, and more especially against the Turks, who in the sixteenth century were the most powerful military state in the world. In this paper I propose to deal with this subject to the best of my ability.

When the brilliant period of marine exploration and discovery inaugurated by the great organizer known as Prince Henry the Navigator came to its culmination in the closing years of the fifteenth century with the discovery of the sea passage to the East, Portugal had opened a new page in

history. The greatness of this exploit has been universally recognized, and the names of Bartholomeu Diaz and Vasco da Gama have long been inscribed on the roll of fame with those of the great explorers and sailors of all nations. may be doubted whether the true nature of the task which Portugal then undertook to achieve as the pioneer and forerunner of Europe has been fully realized. It is generally taken for granted that the Eastern trade, once the route by the Cape of Good Hope had been made known, fell of itself, and as it were automatically, into the hands of the bold adventurers who "were the first who ever burst" into the Indian Ocean without the toils and dangers of the land passage, and that the wealth of the Indies thenceforward flowed in a smooth and uninterrupted stream to Portugal and to all Europe. But it is seldom recognized that in order to secure these benefits Portugal was embarking on a naval war of unprecedented length and difficulty against the greatest military power then existing. It is probable that the Portuguese leaders did not themselves realize it, for Turkey had not as vet, in 1498, made her way to the shores of the Indian Ocean. They did realize, however, that they would have to fight many powerful enemies before they could obtain control of the trade routes, and they prepared deliberately for the struggle. Selim Yawuz (or the Grim), a man of extraordinary vigour and ability, was not content with the grip he had obtained over Europe; he contemplated nothing short of universal empire. India was at this time going through one of its periods of anarchy and weakness. The great Saltanat of Delhi had declined into decrepitude, and although some able Afghan adventurers, the Lodis, had inspired it with some signs of life, it was incapable of recovering its old dominions in the Deccan. Most of the Musulman kingdoms which had arisen on its ruins were themselves in decay. The Bahmani kingdom of the Deccan had split up into five small realms, two of which reached to the sea-coast and held the region in which Bombay and Goa afterwards arose. Further north

the coast was held by the strongest still surviving of the kingdoms which had succeeded that of Delhi, Gujarāt, the only one of them with any naval power, and the possessor of the famous ports of Kambavat, Surat. and Diu. Mesopotamia, the Shatt-al-'Arab, and the northern coasts of the Persian Gulf were in the hands of the newly founded kingdom of Shāh Isma'ıl, Safavī, who had established the Shi'a sect of Islam in Persia and was the principal object of the hatred of Selim, who regarded him as a detestable heretic as well as a dangerous rival, and, moreover, as the possessor of the only route by which access could be obtained to the Persian Gulf, the shortest way to India. The actual issue from the Gulf was held by the small mercantile principality of Hurmuz, which from its barren and torrid rocky island in the Straits controlled both the Persian and Arabian coasts, and grew wealthy on the tolls levied on the trade which passed through.

On the other side of Arabia lay the Egyptian kingdom of the Mamlūks, still apparently strong, ruling not only Egypt but Syria, and controlling the Red Sea and the sacred places of Islām.

To enable Selim to carry out his ambitious schemes, the control of the Persian Gulf or the Red Sea, or both, was necessary, and to obtain this control he must conquer either Persia or Egypt. Could he but obtain control of the searoute to India, conquest of that country in its distracted condition would be easy for a Turkish army constituted and disciplined as those armies then were. India had long been the coveted object for the men of Turkish race, not Ottoman Turks, it is true, but of the same stock and speaking the same language. Maḥmūd of Ghaznī and Tīmūr were Turks, and Bābur, who, six years after Selim's death, overthrew the Delhi kingdom and established the so-called Mughal Empire, was also a Turkish adventurer. Ottoman Turks abounded in India, they were employed to form their bodyguards by many of the Muḥammadan rulers, and were

universally found as artillerymen; in fact, all the gunners in India seem to have been Turks.1 They also held many of the official posts of importance. As a step to opening the way to these vast projects, Persia was first attacked. Shah Isma'îl was defeated and crippled at the battle of Chāldirān in 1514. Kurdistān fell into the hands of Selim, but Persia was still able to retain her hold on Mesopotamia and the Persian Gulf, so that the scheme so far was a failure. Selim then turned his arms against the Mamlūks, and in 1517 succeeded in destroying their Government and annexing both Syria and Egypt. This gave him control over the Red Sea and the sacred places, and the sea-route to India for the first time became accessible to the Turks. But the Portuguese now stood in his way, and to understand the position it is necessary to go back a few years and consider what had been happening in the Indian Ocean.

At the extreme south of Western India lies the country of Malabar, a fertile strip between the Ghats and the sea. Here were some small Hindu states as yet untouched by the flood of Musalmān invasion. The principal of these was Calicut, and it was here that the Portuguese adventurers first touched Indian soil. They soon discovered that the Raja of that country looked on them with unfriendly eyes, for although he was a Hindu he was dependent for his revenues on the trade carried on by the Arab merchants with the Persian Gulf, Arabia, and East Africa. All attempts on the part of the Portuguese to obtain trade were resisted, and their leaders therefore made friends with two minor states, Cochin and

¹ No less than three out of the kingdoms which were formed out of the Bahmanī State were ruled over by men of Turkish origin, viz. Yūsuf 'Ādil Shāh, founder of the 'Ādilshāhīs of Bījāpur, Kūsim Barīd (often called Kūsim Turk), founder of the Barīdshāhīs of Bīdar, and Sultān Kuli Kutb Shāh, founder of the Kutbshāhīs of Golkonda. All three probably belonged to the Turkish tribes of Ādarbaijān. The claim afterwards made that Yūsuf 'Ādil Shāh was a son of Sultān Murād II of Turkey is probably baseless. I have dealt with this question in my note to my edition of the Book of Duarte Barbosa (Hakluyt Society), vol. i, p. 72, n. 1.

Cananor, which were jealous of their more powerful neighbour. Trading stations or factories were soon established at these places, and a fort built at Cochin in 1506. Portuguese were also on fairly amicable terms with the great Hindu Empire of Vijayanagar, which held the divided Muhammadan states at bay over the remainder of South India, and came down to the coast north of Malabar and south of Goa. The Raja of this country hoped to get a supply of horses for his cavalry from the Portuguese, and to be freed from dependence on the Arab dealers. The principal Arab settlements in East Africa, Mozambique, Kilwa, and Mombasa, were taken and occupied by the Portuguese, and a settlement made in 1507 on the island of Socotra, near the entrance to the Red Sea. Thus a strong position was secured, and the fleets coming round the Cape were provided with harbours and means of obtaining supplies. Yet their trials and difficulties were enormous. Provisions were bad, and scurvy raged, crews were decimated, and the tiny ships frequently perished in the gales of the South Atlantic. Meanwhile, all the Muhammadan powers surrounding the Arabian Sea were up in arms against the insolent intruders on their ancient monopoly in the lucrative traffic of the East, and before Turkev came on the scene they had combined to make one great effort to crush them. The leaders in this movement were the Mamlüks of Egypt and the Sultans of Gujarat, and active assistance was given by the rulers of Bījāpur and Alimadnagar, two of the smaller kingdoms which had arisen on the ruins of the Bahmani kingdom, which, as has already been noticed, were interested in the maintenance of the Arab trade. Egypt, especially, found herself faced with the loss of the great revenues she derived from the trade which came by the Red Sea to Suez, and thence by caravans to Alexandria, where the Venetian and Genoese merchants paid heavily for the privilege of monopolizing the trade of Europe. Kambāya or Cambay, one of the principal emporiums of India, was in Gujarāt; Chāul in Ahmadnagar, and Dābhol r

in Bījāpur, were both very important trade centres. It was arranged that a fleet should be equipped at Suez and sent to India to co-operate with the light coasting craft of Gujarāt; assistance and co-operation was to be given by the other states, and information as to Portuguese movements obtained from Calicut. The Egyptian fleet was placed under the command of Mīr Ḥusain, Governor of Jedda, a Kurd by race, while the Gujarāt forces were organized by Malik Ayyāz, a Russian renegade taken prisoner by the Turks in his youth and sold into slavery in India, where he rose by his ability to be governor of the town and island of Diu.¹

The Portuguese were under the Viceroy Francisco D'Almeida, one of the great leaders of the time, who was ably seconded by his gallant and popular son Lourenço, the darling of the troops and sailors. Lourenço's exploits, as described by contemporary chroniclers, resemble those of a hero of ancient romance. Gaspar Correa says in his account of a fight at Cochin 2 that Dom Lourenço, who had just been wounded in the hand by an arrow, "threw himself upon them with great fury, whirling his battle-axe round, and felled two of them so that they could not rise, and one javelin-man he dealt such a blow with his axe that he split him through the shoulder into two pieces, and another wielding a short sword he cut through both legs at the knees, and another he ran through with the spike of the battle-axe so that he fell dead. The rest, seeing these strokes, were seized with great terror, nevertheless they did not yield, but strove to wound him in the heels, no other part being uncovered, for he went all armed in white armour gilded in parts, and the darts they hurled at the vizor of his helm, but they could do him no hurt, and when they struck him with their soft iron swords they broke or twisted, whereupon they fled and took refuge

¹ This is the account given by De Barros (Duc. II, ii, 9), and is the most trustworthy. Correa calls him a Jão, or Javanese. Firishta says simply that he was the private slave of the Sultān of Gujarāt. Castanheda (i, 252) says he was a Tartar by nation.

² Lendas da India, vol. i, p. 612.

in the mosques, and were no more willing to display their Such was the young leader whose deeds have valour." furnished the subject of the excellent historical novel of Pinheiro Chagas, The Viceroy's Jewel, 1 which adheres closely to the narratives of the chroniclers. He was the first Portuguese leader to visit Ceylon and open up friendly communications with the rulers of that country. In 1507 the Viceroy sent him north with a squadron to explore the coast as far as Gujarāt, to attack and scatter pirates and local hostile gatherings, but no rumour of the approaching storm from Egypt seems to have reached him. As he lay in the estuary leading to the then famous port of Chaul (a little way south of where Bombav stands now), into which he had run to escape the force of the monsoon gales, news was brought to him by a Hindu that a great Moorish (i.e. Muhammadan) fleet had arrived at Diu, and had been joined by Malik Ayyaz with his light craft. The joint fleet was on its way to Chaul, and it would be well for the small Portuguese fleet to put to sea at once, and not to be caught in the river by a much stronger force. This was also Dom Lourenço's opinion, but he was overborne by the views of the majority of the captains, who thought the whole story a stratagem to tempt them out to sea, and unfortunately for him the squadron remained in the estuary. Even when the Egyptian fleet arrived off the bar the Portuguese sailors at first believed it to be that of Afonso D'Alboquerque, for the ships were of the European style such as had not been met with in India before. They were soon undeceived. The fleet came in over the bar and attacked the Portuguese vessels. In spite of their bad position the latter were able to beat them off, and the Egyptian fleet withdrew to a distance after severe losses. The next morning the Gujarāt light vessels, sixty fustas, came in over the bar, and the fight was renewed, lasting through the day and night. On the following day came

¹ A Joia do Visorey.

the disaster. D. Lourenço's ship, in turning to go downstream, became entangled in a line of fishermen's stakes, and was for a time isolated among a swarm of fustas. There was still an opportunity of escaping in a small boat to the other ships, but the leader refused to leave any of his men behind, and they would not go without him. In the end a shot broke both D. Lourenço's legs, and he shortly afterwards died, telling the remainder of his men to surrender to Malik Ayyaz, who had promised to keep them as prisoners of the King of Gujarāt, and not to make them over to the Egyptian fleet. This they did, after first letting down the body of their commander into the swift current through a hole in the ship with all his arms and belongings, so that nothing of his should fall into the hands of the enemy. Part of the squadron escaped, but the blow to the Portuguese was a severe one, and thus the first serious fight in the long war was a triumph for the enemy. This battle took place at the end of April, 1507,1 and it was not till the end of the next year that the Viceroy was able to collect a fleet of sufficient strength to avenge his loss. During this period Alboquerque, who had come out from Portugal with another fleet under Tristão D'Acunha, and had jointly with him taken the island of Socotra, made his first attempt (during 1508) to take possession of the island of Hurmuz, and so to seal up the entrance of the Persian Gulf. This attempt, successful at first, ended in a partial failure, owing to the mutinous conduct of some of his captains, who deserted him at the most critical time, and sailed away to India to traduce him to the Viceroy. It is evident that the lack of discipline in the Portuguese fleet, as in other fleets at the same period, was a source of great danger. There was no royal fleet; some ships were fitted out by the king, and others by private adventurers, and these always claimed liberty of action and held themselves free to disobey

¹ De Barros, dec. II, vii, f. 41; Correa, i, 762-71; Firishta, i, 204. Mirāt-i-Sikandarī in Bayley's *History of Gujarat*, p. 322 (Fazlu'llāh's trans., p. 75), gives the date as 913 п., which year began on May 13, 1507. Castanheda, i, 254, places these events in 1508.

orders unless they approved of them. Alboquerque himself did much to reform this abuse at a later time, but it long remained a dangerous defect in the fleets sent out from Lisbon. Yet they were superior to their adversaries in seamanship and gunnery, and in a naval engagement under equal conditions they seldom failed to assert this superiority. This was shown most forcibly in February, 1509, when Almeida with his fleet sailed up the west coast of India, and after taking his revenge at Dābhōl for the assistance which had been given there to the Egyptian fleet, arrived at Diu, where he found the Egyptian fleet and the Gujarāt fustus, with a contingent from Calicut, assembled in the strait between the island of Diu and the mainland, where they were under the guns of the fort. The attack was made in the morning, with the sea breeze bringing in the Portuguese fleet. The fight was a desperate one; there was much grappling and boarding. Many ships were sunk, and the Egyptian fleet was completely broken up. How far it escaped absolute destruction is not certain. It is remarkable, however, that the native historians of Gujarāt, while laying great stress on the victory of Chaul, do not say a word as to the defeat at Diu. Mir Husain and his fleet are never mentioned again after their victorious return to Diu either by Firishta or by the author of the Mirāt-i-Sikandarī.

The Sulṭān of Rūm, who was the enemy of the European unbelievers (Kāffār-i-Firang), sent many ships to the coast of Hind for a holy war (ghaza) and protection, and many ships arrived near Gujarāt. Sulṭān Maḥmūd, eager to take part in the holy war, started towards the ports of Basi (Bassain) Daman (Dāmān) and Mahāim (Mahim), and when he arrived in the region of Daman he ordered his own private slave, Ayyāz Sulṭān, who was Amīra'l-umarā and supah-sālār, to go from Dīb (Diu) with several picked ships to attack the Firangis, and ten large ships of the Rūmīs, who were come from the Khūnkār of Rūm for purposes of holy war, accompanied Ayyāz, and Ayyāz, having gone to Chēwal (Chāul), fought with the Christians, and one great ship of the Firang, worth one Karor, and in which was their leader, was battered and sunk by the cannon of the Musulmāns, and Ayyāz was victorious and slew very many.

Although he lost four hundred of his own men, who drank the sharbat of martyrdom, yet two or three thousand of the Firang unbelievers were despatched to hell. ($T\bar{a}r\bar{\iota}kh$ -i- $F\iota rishta$, Newal Kishor Press, Lucknow, vol. i, p. 204.)

For the Khūnkār-i-Rūm, Briggs in his translation (vol. iv, p. 74) has the "Grand Seignior of Constantinople". Possibly Firishta himself did not know that the fleet was Egyptian and not Turkish.

The passage corresponding in the Mirāt-i-Sikandarī (Bayley's *Hist. of Gujarat*, p. 322), is as follows:

The Sultān (i.e. Maḥmūd Bigarha) marched with his army to Chēwal, and in consequence of the disturbances caused by Europeans he marched towards Basai and Mahaim. On arriving at Diu he learnt that Malik Ayyāz, the Sultān's slave, and the ruler of Diu, had obtained a body of Turks and ten Turkish ships. With these he sailed to the port of Chēwal and fought with the disorderly Europeans. He killed a great many of them and with his guns sunk one large ship heavily laden. Malik Ayyāz lost 440 men, Turks and others, but he returned to Diu in triumph.

Neither of these authors even mentions the fight off Diu in 1509.

Mir Husain is heard of in the Red Sea as building fortifications at Jedda, but never seems to have commanded a fleet again. Before the time of the Turkish conquest of Egypt by the Turks he was superseded by a corsair from the Mediterranean, a Greek renegade from Mitylene, named Rais Sulaimān, and Mir Husain seems to have served under him in an unsuccessful attack on Aden. Ultimately, according to De Barros, Mir Husain was thrown overboard and drowned by his successor's orders. At Gujarāt Malik Ayyāz hastened to make peace with the Portuguese by supplying the fleet with provisions and surrendering the Portuguese prisoners taken at Chāul. If Almeida had not been opposed to the policy

¹ See De Barros, dec. III, i, 6, f. 6, verso; Book of Duarte Barbosa, i, 47-50.

² Ibid. III, i, 6, f. 8, and IV, i, 8, p. 24.

of land acquisitions it is probable that Diu would have been surrendered to the Portuguese. As it was they did not obtain it till 1535.

Thus ended the first concerted attempt to expel the Portuguese from the Indian seas. It is to be noted that many historians, both Portuguese and Indian, speak of the Egyptian fleet as one sent out by the Sultān of Rūm or Constantinople. No doubt, even before the annexation of Egypt, the Turkish element was very strong in that country, and the composition of the fleet was like that of the Turkish fleets; a fighting element of Turks, mixed with Kurds and Circassians, sailors of all kinds from the Levant, mostly Christians by birth, and prisoners in the galleys under Turkish taskmasters. The native Egyptians had no voice in the matter. The confusion was therefore natural, especially as all the histories were composed after the Turks were in possession of the Red Sea.

From 1509 till the end of 1515 Afonso D'Alboquerque was the Portuguese Governor, a man of great ability and extraordinary energy. He did not share Francisco D'Almeida's objection to land settlements. He saw clearly that to maintain the struggle at such a distance from home it was absolutely necessary for Portugal to have a foothold of her own, secure from the caprices of native rulers. The first was Goa, on an island between two creeks, a secure harbour separated from the mainland by a shallow but easily defended channel. This had belonged to the Bijāpur kingdom. It was taken, lost, and retaken in 1510, and has been held ever since by Portugal. The second was Hurmuz, which held the key of the Persian Gulf. The ruler of this island had accepted Portuguese suzerainty in 1508, but, as described above, Alboquerque was prevented from completing his schemes. The last act of his rule and his life was the completion of the strong fort which still stands on the deserted and sun-parched rock as a memento of departed greatness. Portugal held this extraordinary island, by nature one of the most desolate places in the world, but important and wealthy by its position, till

1622, and its loss was one of the principal causes of her down-After taking Goa in 1510, the indefatigable governor in 1511 conducted a most adventurous expedition to Malacca, one of the most important points for controlling the trade from China and the Spice Islands. This, too, became a Portuguese possession, and filled the position now occupied by Singapur and Hong-Kong combined. The fourth of the key-points aimed at was one which should discharge for the Red Sea the same function as Hurmuz did for the Persian Gulf. Aden was the only place that in any way corresponded with Hurmuz. Even Aden, however, could not perfectly seal up the Red Sea. Alboquerque made a bold attempt in 1513 to take by escalade this strongly fortified town. The attempt failed, and he then tried to reach and take the town of Jedda. He had vast dreams of converting the world and destroying Islam by taking its holy places. He had not, however, reckoned with the climate of the Red Sea. He could not reach Jedda, and his men perished from fever in the terrible island of Kamaran. He was unable to renew his attempts on Aden, and Portuguese power was never established there. Although the Indian Ocean became a dangerous place for Turkish ships, vet some trade continued to find its way to the Red Sea, and from time to time expeditions came out of it through the Straits of Bab-el-Mandab. Also occasional Portuguese fleets went in through the same straits, but were never able to do much. 1515-16, just before the Turkish conquest of Egypt, a small expedition under Raïs Sulaiman went out and tried to take Aden. Although the walls were battered down the Arabs were able to beat it off.1 Soon afterwards Lopo Soares D'Albergaria, the incapable successor of Alboquerque, appeared in the harbour with his fleet. The Arab chief felt himself so helpless that he offered to surrender the fort to the Portuguese. The foolish Lopo Soares preferred to go on

¹ It had been intended that the fleet should go on to the Indian coast, but it was not able to go beyond Aden. See the account in Castanheda, IV, vii, 11-13.

with the impossible project of taking Jedda, actually reached it, and sailed back again. As with the first expedition, he was shut up in Kamarān by the monsoon, and lost most of his men, and when at last he got back to Aden he found that the Arabs had rebuilt their wall and laughed at the idea of surrendering the town.

Just before Lopo Soares arrived in front of Jedda the news had been received of the conquest of Egypt by Selim. Rais Sulaiman, the governor, declared for him and was confirmed as Governor of Jedda. Selim at once pursued the plans for the invasion of India, but as the fleet of Egypt had been destroyed he had no means of carrying them out. He urged on the construction of a large fleet 2 at Suez, but did not live to see its completion. Selim died in 1519, and it remained for his successor Sulaiman, generally called "the Magnificent". to prosecute his schemes. Nothing was, however, done for some years, and the work on the fleet seems to have been retarded by a feud between Rais Sulaimān and a Circassian named Haidar, who succeeded him as Governor of Jedda, though not in command of the fleet. This ended in both being killed.3 The retreat of Lopo Soares from Jedda had much injured the prestige of the Portuguese, and, although he had taken and destroyed Zeila, on the Somali coast, on his way back to Hurmuz in 1517, and Saldanha sacked Berbera the next year, there was, according to Correa, a general idea that the Portuguese would not venture to oppose the Turks. was felt that some action must be taken, and in 1523 an expedition was sent to Massowa, in the Red Sea, to bring back a Portuguese Ambassador who had gone to Abyssinia, but it returned without effecting its purpose.

In 1524 ⁴ Eitor da Silveira again went into the Red Sea, and also made peace with Aden. the Chief of which expressed his willingness to submit to Portugal; a treaty

¹ Castanheda, iv, 18 and iv, 41.

² De Barros, IV, i, 8. 24 f.

³ De Barros, IV, i, 8, p. 24.

⁴ Correa, ii, 780.

which, however, led to nothing. Next year a Turkish fleet under Raīs Sulaimān again threatened Aden, but was beaten off by Silveira. This fleet and others in the following years made their way across the Indian Ocean to the coast of Gujarāt, where many contests took place with Portuguese Sultan Sulaimān was undoubtedly attracted to India by the state of unrest and disorganization which followed the invasion of Bābur in the north and the collapse of the Bahmanī kingdom in the south. Bābur's great victory at Pānīpat on April 20, 1526, which led to the fall of the Lodi kingdom of Delhi and the foundation of the Mughal Empire, preceded only by four months Sulaiman's own triumph at Mohacs (on August 28, 1526), which led to the subjection of Hungary to Turkey. At this period Gujarāt stood out as the most wealthy and apparently the strongest among the existing kingdoms of India, and there can be no doubt that Sulaiman regarded a foothold on that coast as a necessary step towards the foundation of an Indian Empire. To effect this it was evidently his policy to form an alliance with Gujarāt for the expulsion of the Portuguese from the Eastern seas; in fact, to carry out with far greater force what had been attempted by the Egyptian fleet in 1509. Negotiations were therefore commenced with any elements which gave the promise of raising a strong Turkish party in The Mughal Emperor Humavun, who succeeded Bābur in 1530, inherited his ambitions without his extraordinary resolution and energy. One of his principal projects was the conquest of the wealthy region of Gujarāt, and Bahādur Shāh, the king of that country, was willing to obtain support wherever he could, either from Turkey or from the Portuguese. His country had already served as a refuge for malcontents from the Delhi kingdom, among whom was the pretender to the crown, 'Ala-ud-din Lodi (uncle of the king Ibrāhīm, who had been defeated by Bābur). This man or

some member of his family found his way to Constantinople,1 and begged for help, while Bahādur Shāh's emissaries at the same time laid his case before the Sultan with very valuable gifts and large sums of money in gold. These applications provided the opportunity he wanted, and he immediately began to fit out a great expedition at Suez. A fleet of sixty-six ships, including twenty-four large galleys and a great number of smaller craft, was constructed and armed with powerful artillery. A force of 20,000 men was embarked, which included 7,000 Janissaries, as the Turkish historian, Hājī Khalīfa, informs us. This fact, alone, shows that conquest by land as well as by sea was contemplated, and there can be little doubt that Sulaiman's intention was to establish his power in India, relying at first on the support of Gujarāt. The whole was under the command of Sulaiman Basha, a eunuch of Greek descent, a man of great cunning, known for his cruel and unscrupulous nature. He held the post of Governor of Egypt, and owed his appointment, it was reported, to a harem intrigue. He was over eighty years of age, and inordinately fat, so much so that according to the chroniclers it took four men to lift him from a seat. His appointment to such a responsible post may be regarded as an example of the vicious Turkish system of later days, but can hardly be considered as typical under the usually vigorous administration of Sulaimān the Magnificent. A Portuguese pilot named Alvaro Madeira, who had been taken prisoner by the Arabs at Shihr on the coast of Hadhramaut, offered his services as guide, but escaped before the expedition sailed, and found his way to Lisbon, where he exposed the Turkish plans. information was, however, too late to be of any value to his countrymen in India.

¹ Turkish records (quoted by Hammer-Purgstall) mention one Burhan Beg, "son of Sikandar Lödī, who had been defeated by Humayun." No such person is mentioned by the Indian historians. Sikandar Lödī was the father of Ibrāhīm, who was defeated not by Humāyūn but by Bābur, nor is the title Beg borne by Afghāns such as the Lödīs. In India it denotes Mughal descent. Firishta (Persian text, ii, 222) says that 'Alā-ud-dīn was one of the sons of Bahlöl Shāh, Lödī.

The island of Diu had been ceded to the Portuguese by the Sultān of Gujarāt, Bahādur Shāh, in 1535, as a bribe to obtain their help against Humāyūn. They also obtained his consent to the erection of a fort on this island, and immediately set to work to construct it, under the orders of the Viceroy Nuno da Cunha. A quarrel afterwards broke out, and in 1536 Bahādur met his death in a sudden and apparently unpremeditated dispute which broke out during a visit to the Portuguese Governor. The succession to his throne was disputed, and in 1538 the nominal ruler was Mahmūd Shāh, but the army seems to have been under the control of an Italian renegade named Khwaja Ja'afar,1 who was working in the interest of Mīr 'Ālam Khān, a Lodi refugee. The Muhammadan historians give but little information regarding these events, and we are dependent mainly on Portuguese records for what happened after the death of Bahadur Shah. The defences of the Diu fort had been pushed on, and Khwaja Ja'afar, who had for a time feigned friendship to the Portuguese, suddenly turned against them, having learnt of the Turkish preparations. His troops, consisting of a motley army of Arabs, Turks, Abyssinians, and others, were joined by the army of 'Alam Khan, and occupied the north shore of the strait which separates the island of Diu from the mainland. This strait was in some places fordable at low water. The Portuguese fort occupied the eastern corner of the island, and the native town with a mercantile population of Muhammadans and Hindus lay to the west of it.

The first attack was made on the town on June 26, 1538; the Portuguese commander, Antonio da Silveira, was able for a time to hold the straits, but in August he found that his small force was insufficient for this purpose, and he gradually withdrew his artillery into the fort, not without considerable losses. This action was just in time to avoid certain destruction, for the Turkish fleet was approaching. No news

¹ The correct form of this name is uncertain. It may be Zafar. The Portuguese historians give it as Sofar.

had reached Goa, and no reinforcements had been dispatched. but rumours began to come in, and at the end of August a light vessel, known as a fusta, or "foist", was sent to Mangalor (or Mangrol), at the west end of the Kathiawar peninsula, to reconnoitre. The captain, Miguel Vaz, caught sight of the great armada, and hurried back with the news that he had seen forty-five galleys and a multitude of smaller vessels. Miguel Vaz was immediately hurried off to give the news at Goa. He was sighted by the approaching enemy, but was able to escape them as there was a break in the monsoon, and the breezes which were sufficient for his light craft were not enough for the Turks. It may be remarked here that the Portuguese were better sailors than the Turks. They were at home in the stormy waters of the Indian Ocean, while the Turks, who had been trained in the Mediterranean, and who relied more on galleys than on sailing ships, often suffered severely during the monsoons.

Sulaimān Bāshā 1 had sailed from Suez on June 22, 1538,

¹ The principal authorities for Sulaimān Bāshā's expedition are the following :--

De Barros, IV, x, chs. 1-11.

Castanheda, viii, chs. 191-7, but history stops short in the middle of the siege.

Faria y Sousa (ed. 1666), i, 354 ff. Do Conto V, iv.

Haji Khalifa, Maritime Wars of the Turks, O.T.F. trans., p. 65 f., and History des Guerres Maritimes, f. 26.

Hammer-Purgstall, History of the Ottoman Turks, v, 297 f. (French translation).

Firishta (Persian text. ii, 224-5) and the Mirāt-i-Sikandarī conclude their accounts with the death of Bahadur Shah, and do not relate the events connected with the Turkish fleet. This applies not only to the translation in Bayley's History of Gujarāt but also to the fuller translation by Fazlu'llah Lutfullah Faridi (Bombay,

The relation of the Venetian officer who was a prisoner under Sulaiman Basha is given in Ramusio, i, 274-80 (Viaggio scritto par un Comito Veneziano).

These and subsequent events are also dealt with in the introduction to Bittner and Tomaschek's edition of Sidi 'Ali's Mohit (Die topographische Capitel des Indischen Seespiegels Mohit, by Kapudan Sidi Ali, Katib-i-Rūmi), Vienna, 1897, and in Sīdī 'Ali's own account of his expedition, The Miratel Mamalik, which is referred to here in the French version, Relation des Voyages de Sidi Ali, Paris, 1827.

and after a considerable delay at Jedda arrived at Aden, where he again delayed from August 3 till August 19, in order to obtain command of that important port which was under its own Arab chief, Shaykh Ghāzī bin Dāūd. This chief, though unwilling to submit to the Turks, wished to propitiate the commander of this powerful armament, and agreed to his request to send supplies to the fleet and to pay him a visit in person, and at the same time to receive at Aden a number of invalids from the fleet. Sulaiman under this guise landed a large number of soldiers with concealed arms, who, on a preconcerted signal, seized on the defences of the town and sacked it, while the unfortunate Ghāzī and three other Shavkhs who had accompanied him on board were at the same time hanged on the yardarms of the Bāshā's galley. He then sailed for Diu, leaving a garrison in Aden. This treacherous conduct, which soon became known among the Gujarātis, did not conduce to good relations between them and the Turks. The fleet arrived off Diu on September 4, 1538. The Turks made a bad beginning, for Sulaiman was unable to conceal his desire to treat Gujarāt as a conquered country. The troops which were landed made a demonstration in front of the Portuguese fort, but also indulged themselves in an orgy of plunder and murder in the town, and spread dismay among their allies. The break in the monsoon came to an end, and the admiral found himself obliged to seek a safer anchorage, which he found (at Muzaffarābād) some twenty miles away. In moving he lost four cargo-boats, which were wrecked, and the munitions of war they contained were scattered along the coast. Among these were a large number of saddles and other equipment for cavalry, which deepened the impression among the Gujarātis that the expedition was intended for land operations, for cavalry could not be needed for the siege of After about three weeks the fleet was able an island fortress. to return to Diu, and the actual siege began with what was for those days a tremendous bombardment. We are told that nine basilisks were employed throwing shot of from 90 to

100 lb. weight, and others throwing stone shot of upwards seven palms in circumference, and battering guns which could smash a solid rock. The bombardment was fully developed by October 5, and lasted till November 5. During this time numerous assaults were made without success. Portuguese had received some small reinforcements, but were nearly at the end of their resources, when to their astonishment the Turkish fleet suddenly sailed away, and they remained undefeated. The events of this siege have been described in great detail, and occupy a prominent position in all modern histories dealing with the history of the Portuguese in India. The Turkish and Indian historians pass over its close in a very summary way, and attribute it to the failure of the Gujarātīs to furnish the fleet with supplies. It is evident, however, that this ambitious scheme ended in absolute failure.

The failure of Firishta and of Sikandar, the author of the Mirāt-i-Sikandarī, to give any account of the Turkish expedition is remarkable, and the reason for it is not easy to detect. Firishta, indeed, in ch. xi of his history gives a short account, which is, as he states, taken entirely from the Tuḥſatu'l-Mujāhidīn, but in its own place under the history of Gujarāt he leaves a blank, as does the Mirāt-i-Sikandarī, the special history of that country. This, combined with the similar omission of the naval battle of 1509 by the same writers, has the appearance of deliberate suppression. The author of the Tuhfatu'l-Mujāhidīn, however, shows greater honesty and is not afraid to admit a Muhammadan defeat, although not to be relied on for details. Like Hājī Khalīfa, he attributes the failure of Sulaiman Pasha solely to the want of supplies, and the failure of the Gujarātīs to co-operate, and says nothing about the fighting. He states plainly that the intention of the Sultan Sulaiman was not only to drive out the Portuguese but to take possession of the territory himself. In the version of his history given by Firishta (Persian text, ii, 372) he says, "At this time Sultan Sulaiman

bin Sultān Salīm Rūmī expressed the desire to expel the Firangīs from the ports of Hind, and to possess himself of these regions."

Sulaiman was in no hurry to show himself to his master; he lingered at Aden and other places on the Arabian coast, and did not reach Jedda till March 13, 1539. He found himself in disgrace at Constantinople, and as he understood that his destruction was certain he put an end to his own life. This failure was decisive. The Portuguese remained in command of the open waters of the Indian Ocean, although the Turks were still strong in the Red Sea, as was shown in 1541, when the Portuguese Viceroy, Estevão da Gama, son of the great admiral, attempted to attack the Turkish naval port of The expedition led to no valuable result, although, incidentally, it contributed to the preservation of the Christian kingdom of Abyssinia from destruction at the hands of the Muhammadan tribes of the coast which had been furnished with firearms by the Turks. The quixotic, but heroic, adventure of Christovão da Gama, the Viceroy's brother, in this cause, has been fully dealt with in Mr. Whiteway's Portuguese Expedition to Abyssinia. In spite of his defeat, the "Grand Turk", Sultan Sulaiman, did not give up his projects of aggrandisement in the East, but the story of the various attempts made only serves to show how decisive the defeat of the Turks had been and how strong was the hold the Portuguese had now obtained over the waters of the Indian Ocean.

Diu was besieged a second time in 1548, but the Turks took no part in this siege, which was carried on entirely by the Indian Musulmāns; it is probable, however, that it was not unconnected with Turkish schemes. Aden had submitted, nominally at least, to the Portuguese after Sulaimān Bāshā's return, and the other parts of Hadhramaut were also under their influence. By 1551 another strong fleet had been fitted out at Suez. It was placed under the command of Pīrī Bey, a distinguished naval commander, and sailed into the Indian' Ocean, visiting Aden and Shiḥr and Dhofār, on the

Hadhramaut coast. He then appeared off Maskat, and finding the Portuguese unprepared he took it without much difficulty, carrying off the Portuguese commandant, João de Lisboa, as a prisoner. He appears, according to the Turkish historians, to have asked his captive for advice, and following this he turned out of the Persian Gulf, after he had plundered some of the islands there but had failed to take Hurmuz. He then heard of the approach of a strong Portuguese fleet under Noronha,1 and attempting to slip past them was engaged in a disastrous battle. He got away with three galleys only, one of which was wrecked on the Bahrain Islands, and he found his way to the Red Sea with two only. The remainder of the fleet was locked up in the Persian Gulf, and took refuge in the Shatt-u'l'Arab. Katīf, on the Arabian coast of the Gulf, which the Portuguese had taken in 1550, remained in their hands.

The enraged Sultān promptly beheaded Pīrī Bey, and sent Murād Bey (who had escaped from Katīf when the Portuguese took it) overland to Basra, with orders to take the fleet out of the river and bring it round to the Red Sea. Murād Bey, anxious to retrieve his reputation, sailed boldly for the Straits of Hurmuz, but the Portuguese fleet, under Diogo de Noronha, was waiting for him there. A desperate fight ensued, in which one of the Portuguese captains, G. P. Marramaque, took a glorious part. Two of the Turkish captains, Sulaimān Rais and Rejeb Raīs, were killed, and their ships sunk. The remainder of the fleet fled and again took refuge at Basra.

Sultān Sulaimān now had to recourse to one of the best-known naval commanders of the time, Sīdī 'Alī, an old Mediterranean warrior, who had served under Khairu'ddīn Barbarossa in the great naval victory of Prevesa, in which the pride of Andrea Doria had been abased. His task was to get the Turkish fleet of fifteen galleys out of the trap in which it

¹ Probably Fernando de Noronha, as the Turkish account says he was son of the Governor. Afonso de Noronha was Governor, and his son Fernando commanded the fleet which fought next year against Sidi 'Ali.

was enclosed and to bring it round into the safe waters of the Red Sea. He sailed down the Persian coast, touching the Isle of Khārak, Rī-shahr (now displaced by the more modern Abu-shahr or Bushire), Katīf, the Bahrain Islands, and the Isle of Kishm (which he calls Barokht), and while turning the Cape of Musandam he encountered the Portuguese fleet, under Fernando, son of the Viceroy Afonso de Noronha. The fight which followed was not decisive, and the Turkish ships succeeded in making their way into the open sea, and followed the coast towards Maskat, where the Portuguese fleet seems to have retired to refit. It sailed out on the approach of the Turkish Armada, and a great and decisive battle was fought, which ended in the defeat of the Turkish fleet. Some of their ships were sunk and others driven on to the rocks, and Sīdī 'Ali finally escaped with nine galleys. He describes the fight himself as more terrible than any he had taken part in while fighting against Andrea Doria under the orders of the great Barbarossa. He was forced to abandon his scheme of sailing to the Red Sea, and tried to make for the coast of India. hoping, no doubt, to find safety in the ports of Gujarāt. was now about the middle of August, 1554, and, as on former occasions, the Turks seem to have selected the monsoon season for their ventures in the Indian Ocean, and their great galleys, depending mainly on rowing power, were not well-fitted to contend with the storms they encountered. The battered fleet was driven to the coast of Mekran; the rowers were powerless, and they were forced against their will to set sail to avoid being driven on that inhospitable shore. At last some coasting craft guided them to the harbour of Gwadar, where a Baloch Chief expressed his devotion to Sultan Sulaiman, the Khalīfa, and was induced to furnish them with some pilots. Noronha's fleet had apparently remained at Maskat, but some ships had left in pursuit of the fugitives. and this had no doubt something to do with the dangerous course pursued by Sīdī 'Alī. The tempest nearly drove him into what he calls the Khor of Jakat, that is the Gulf of Kachh,

to the north of Jagat Point. Escaping this danger, and keeping away from Diu to avoid being seen by the Portuguese, he found himself at the entrance of the Gulf of Cambay, where the combination of the south-west gales and the dangerous tides nearly proved too much for him. Two of his galleys were pursued by the Portuguese ships, which drove them on to the rocks. The other seven ships at last found themselves at Dāmān, but the Governor of this place, no doubt through fear of the Portuguese, told them that they would be captured if they stayed there, and directed them to Sūrat. Many of the sailors deserted and got ashore to take service in Gujarāt. With the remainder Sidi 'Ali arrived at Sürat and was allowed to land there. The ships were blockaded by the Portuguese, who demanded their surrender. This the Gujarātīs would not agree to, but to appease the Portuguese they destroyed the ships. Sīdī 'Alī was left stranded with no means of getting back by sea. His ships were destroyed and his crews had deserted. He met with many expressions of devotion to the Khalifa, but with no active support. For a time he remained in Gujarāt, taking part in some local wars, and employed his leisure in compiling his great work, the Muhīt, or Ocean, a guide to the navigation of the Eastern Seas. Finally, he determined to make his way back to Turkey overland. His further adventures do not concern us here, although of great interest in themselves. He travelled through Sindh and Multān to Delhi, and thence through Afghanistan, Bokhara, and Khiva to Persia, and over the Pusht-i-Küh to Bagdad, where he arrived after about three years' wandering.

The strong position of Turkish soldiers and officials in the kingdom of Gujarāt at this period has a curious light thrown on it by this adventure of Sīdī 'Alī. He was sure of a reception at Sūrat, although other ports refused him hospitality, for the reason that it had a Turkish Governor who had himself fortified it in the Turkish fashion, and armed it with Turkish guns, which he had transported from the fort of Junāgaṛh. These guns were known as "Sulaimānī". The history of this

Governor may be pieced together from various incidental mentions by Firishta, and in the Mirāt-i-Sikandarī. The original name of the Governor was Ghazanfar 'Akā, a Turkish Ghulām of Sultān Mahmūd Shāh. He built the fort, according to Firishta, in 949 H. (A.D. 1542) (Firishta's text, ii, 226). He was then given the title of Khudawand Khan, and made Governor of Sūrat. Briggs (iv, 147) gives his name as Suffy Aghā, and his title as Khudābanda Khān. In the Mirāt-i-Sikandarī, where he is mentioned several times, he also bears the name of Khudawand Khan. He is said there to have owed his position at Sūrat to another Ghulām, who had risen to a high position, 'Imādu'l-Mulk Rūmī, also a Turk, though not an Ottoman Turk. He had married Khudāwand Khān's sister, and in the various distributions of appointments which the leading men made in these disturbed times he is said to have appointed his brother-inlaw to be Governor of Sürat (Mirāt-i-Sikandarī, p. 270). In the year 952 (1545) we are told that he acted as executioner of the celebrated noble, Malik 'Imādu'l-Mulk (not to be confounded with 'Imādu'l-Mulk Rūmi), whom he killed after torturing him. The Mirāt here (ib. 235-6) calls him the fiefholder of Sūrat. Still later, in 933 H. (1559), Khudāwand Khān was accused of oppression by the people of Sūrat, who complained to his brother-in-law, 'Imādu'l-Mulk Rūmi. He defied 'Imādu'l-Mulk, who laid siege to Sūrat. Khudāwand Khan finally induced 'Imādu'l-Mulk to visit him under the pretext of negotiation, and treacherously killed him. Changīz Khān, son of 'Imādu'l-Mulk, carried on the attack, and obtained Portuguese assistance by ceding to them Dāmān and Sanjān. The Portuguese fleet blockaded Sūrat, and Khudāwand Khān, in a sortie, was killed by Changīz Khān. There appears to have been a man named Khudawand Khan, who Firishta (l.c.) says was killed by Burhan at the same time as Maḥmūd Shāh in 961 (1554), and the Mirāt (p. 238) speaks of a Khudawand Khan Rumi who was killed at Diu, but it seems clear that one man bearing this title was Governor of Sūrat till 1559, and that he was the original Turkish Ghulām who built the fort. Evidently he was the Governor when Sīdī 'Alī landed there, and it was through his influence that Sidi Ali remained there so long unmolested in spite of Portuguese pressure. This perhaps explains the Portuguese willingness to help Changiz Khān against Khudāwand Khān.

Thus ingloriously ended the last organized effort of the Turks against the Portuguese naval power.

Sultān Sulaimān, the greatest of Turkish rulers, abstained from any further attempt to drive the enemies of Islam from the Arabian Sea, although many isolated combats took place. He died in 1566.1 It was not till the year 1580, in the time of Sulaiman's grandson, Murad III, that a renewal of the struggle took place. It was, however, local, being entirely confined to the coast of East Africa. The occasion may have seemed to the Turks a favourable one, for Portugal was at this time distracted by the dissensions which followed the death of the Cardinal King, Henry, which occurred only a year and a half after his succession to the heroic and romantic Dom Sebastião. The Turkish Empire was, however, not in a position to take full advantage of its opportunities. It had

Dialogo do Soldado Pratico, Lisbon, Acad. Real das Sciencias per Diogo do Couto, 1790.

¹ At this period, while the brave but unfortunate king Dom Sebastião was still reigning in Portugal, it seems that a project of carrying the war into the Persian Gulf and driving the Turks out of Basra had been The historian Diogo do Couto, in his Soldado Pratico (a series of dialogues between a Viceroy lately appointed to India and an old soldier on affairs connected with the Eastern relations of Portugal), alludes to this project. The Vicerov asks the soldier's opinion on the question, and the latter condemns the project, evidently giving expression to Do Couto's own opinion. He thought they might succeed in taking Basra, but could not hold it against the great military power the Turks would be able to bring against it, and that it would be better to concentrate on strengthening Hurmuz and keeping it well supplied so that it would be able to resist all attacks. This was good advice, for the Portuguese could only dispose of a small land force quite incapable of resisting the powerful armaments of the Turks; their strength was on the sea and not on land. Such councils appear to have prevailed, for the expedition was never undertaken.

rapidly deteriorated since Sulaiman's death, and though still outwardly strong, was eaten up by corruption. The attack on the Portuguese seems to have been the work of one man, 'Alī Beg, who was sent out by the Albanian Wālī of Yemen. It is doubtful whether it was ordered or inspired from Constantinople, and it does not seem to have been mentioned by any Turkish historians. All our information is derived from Portuguese sources.1 'Alī Beg's first exploit was a raid against Maskat in 1580. The town was at that time unfortified, for the celebrated fort which still exists was not begun till six years later, and it fell an easy prey to the raider, as it had to Pīrī Bey in 1553. Though this raid led to no permanent result, it gave 'Ali Beg a great reputation, and in 1584 the Walī sent him out of the straits to go down the coast of East Africa and obtain timber for the Red Sea fleet at Malindi. He was furnished with two galleys, but one of them was unseaworthy. and had to return at once. He proceeded with the other, and as he went he got together a number of coasting craft manned by the local Arabs. He proclaimed that a great fleet was following him to expel the Portuguese from the whole coast, and this bluff, taken together with the manifest weakness of the Portuguese, gained him much support among the coast Arabs. Mogadoxo, Brava, the Lamu Islands, and Mombasa declared in his favour, and Malindi, where there was a Portuguese captain in charge, alone held out. Meanwhile, a badly organized Portuguese fleet had entered the Red Sea, but effected nothing, as it was not even able to capture 'Alī Beg's galley on its return journey with its prize, a Portuguese ship, which had been taken. The Arabs who had declared in favour of the Turks continued to defy the Portuguese, and in 1589 the Wālī sent out 'Alī Beg a second time with a better equipped expedition, consisting of four galleys and the ship captured in the first attempt. Had the Turkish rulers now been in a position to send out a strong fleet they might possibly

¹ The only full account is that given by De Couto, Decadas, ed. 1788, Dec. X, bk. vii, chs. 7, 8; Dec. XI, chs. 5-15.

have overthrown the Portuguese naval power. This was the year following the defeat of the great Armada, in which the greater part of the Portuguese fleet had perished, and the English seamen were now on the watch for all Spanish and Portuguese vessels coming from the East, as Linschoten has vividly described. He himself, travelling from India in a Portuguese ship this same year, 1589, was held up in the Azores, and had to spend three years there before he could reach Lisbon. But Turkey was not ready, and the opportunity passed. 'Alī Beg was received with enthusiasm by all the Arabs who had declared for Turkey, but, as before, Malindi 'Ali Beg grounded on a sandbank and was defied him. bombarded by the Portuguese. He got away to Mombasa, intending to fortify himself there.

The local commandant, on hearing of his approach, had dispatched a swift sailing vessel to the Viceroy at Goa, with the news. The latter was a man of energy, and at once sent off his brother Thomé de Souza Coutinho with all the ships he could muster. The fleet arrived on the coast of Brava, and following it to the south by the Lamu Archipelago received news that the Turks were at Malindi. He found on arriving there that they had gone to Mombasa. The fleet arrived at the entry of the port on March 5, 1589. The fight which followed ended in the destruction of the Turkish fleet and the capture of the fort which they had occupied. Many Turks who took refuge on the mainland were killed and devoured by a cannibal Bantu tribe, known to the Portuguese as the Zimbas, who had for some years been spreading desolation along the African coast from the Zambezi northwards. This completed the Turkish discomfiture. 'Alī Beg himself surrendered. He was taken to Lisbon, and is said to have become a Christian. Possibly like many other Turkish sailors he was of European origin.

Thus the last attempt of the Turks to assert their authority in the Indian Ocean ended in failure, as the others had done. Coutinho's brilliant exploit left the Portuguese for the time in

*command of those seas. They had won the victory for Europe; the sea-route was established, and all serious opposition was disposed of. Yet though they had laboured others were to enter into their labours. The accession of a Spanish king to the throne of Portugal had entangled Portugal in the schemes and the wars of Spain. England and Holland perforce became her enemies, and when after the "sixty years' captivity" she recovered her liberty, only the shadow of her Eastern Empire remained to her. The Dutch had taken the greatest part of it, and the trade of India proper was passing into the hands of other nations. It is not my object here to follow the history of the decline of the Portuguese power, but I hope that sufficient has been told to make clear the nature of the task Portugal undertook. It was a single-handed struggle of a small nation against the greatest military power then existing, one which threatened to dominate both Europe and Asia. Portugal was victorious, but exhausted, and the nations of Europe should not now be unmindful of the great part she played.

The Honan Relics: a New Investigator and some Results

By L. C. HOPKINS

IT is a genuine pleasure to report the accession of another Chinese critic and investigator of the Shang dynasty writing, in the person of Mr. Wang Kuo-wei 王國維, of Hai-ning Chou海京州, in the Central Chinese Province of Chehkiang.

I propose to lay before the readers of the Journal one or two of the more interesting results of his decipherments, together with a few notes of my own upon these.

The particular collection of inscribed bone fragments which forms the subject of Mr. Wang's researches is to be found at Shanghai in the Chien Shou T'ang building 意意. By the admirable generosity of Mr. and Mrs. Hardoon of that treaty port, facsimile reproductions of the collection have appeared in Nos. 13-15 of the I Shu Ts'ung Pien magazine, which render the material available for study in any part of the world. I very gladly take the present opportunity of expressing the warmest appreciation of the great boon conferred on Far Eastern research by the financial assistance volunteered by Mr. and Mrs. Hardoon towards the publication of these difficult but invaluable historical documents.

Mr. Wang Kuo-wei is a coadjutor—and a notable one—of the now well-known antiquarian Mr. Lo Chên-yü, and his present enterprise comprises the transcription into modern Chinese—so far as this is yet possible—of all the inscriptions in the above collection, and a comment accompanying them in the form of annotations, historical and epigraphic. It is from this commentary I have drawn in the present article.

First of all I would call attention to a discovery that would have greatly pleased the late Edouard Chavannes had he lived to read it and to weigh the arguments by which Mr. Wang supports it. This discovery is briefly as follows. Ssu-ma Ch'ien has enumerated the names of thirteen ancestors of the line that produced the culminating personality of Tang the Victorious-the founder of the Shang Dynasty. Wang Kuo-wei believes himself to have identified from the inscriptions on the Honan relics no fewer than eight of these personages. The earliest is T'u, +, representing the Hsiang T'u 相 + of the Historical Memoirs; next comes the great-great-grandson of the latter, styled in the Memoirs Chên 振, but identified by Wang, upon grounds that must be left undiscussed here, as the Wang Hai 王 亥 frequently noted on the Bones; then Wei, otherwise called Shang-chia 片甲, and then a complete sequence of the five predecessors of Ch'eng T'ang, T'ang the Victorious, always designated on these relics as Ta I, 大 Z, and not Tien I, 天 Z, as in the Historical Memoirs.

Incidentally, the elucidations of the Chinese scholar upon these points constitute a gratifying confirmation of my own conjecture published in the Journal for January, 1917, pp. 83-4, that the "combinations, each consisting of a symbol closely resembling the half of a square bracket [] enveloping, respectively, the characters Ting, I, and Ping, . . . are really the Pao Ting, Pao I, and Pao Ping of the Historical Memoirs". More than two years later Wang's similar identification appeared on p. 3 of No. 16 of the antiquarian journal I Shu Ts'ung Pien, dated the 2nd month of the 8th year of the Republic, viz. March, 1919, but it seems most improbable that Mr. Wang should have had any knowledge of my article. We had accordingly reached the same conclusion independently.

By what may not unfairly be called a flash of genius, working through the singularly powerful Chinese memory,

Wang has successfully reconstructed in one piece two bone fragments which do not even belong to the same collection. One of these is shown as the 10th example on p. 1 of the illustrated catalogue of the abovementioned Chien Shou T'ang cabinet, edited by himself¹; the other is the 14th on p. 8 of Lo Chên-yü's Yin Hsü Shu Ch'i, Hou Pien.² Wang points out that the style of the writing and the size of the characters on these two fragments are identical, and that the two edges of the fracture fit each other exactly.

When thus adjusted the two pieces reveal a continuous text, which may possibly have originally included one or two more names below. I give in the modern form Wang's reading of this important inscription, and in Fig. 1 of the Plate a facsimile copy of the reconstituted original—乙未酒系品甲十報乙三報丙三報 丁三 市 壬 三 市 癸 三 大 丁 十 大 甲十 (here follows broken edge of bone). Before adding a translation, I may explain that the 3rd and 5th characters are held, no doubt correctly, by Lo Chên-yü to be the names of special sacrifices; probably, therefore, the 4th is so too. The numerals "ten" and "three" must indicate victims or things offered in worship. "On the day i wei to offer at the chiu and hsi and p'in sacrifices, to [Shang] Chia ten, to Pao I three, to Pao Ping three, to Pao Ting three, to Shih Jên three, to Shih Kuei three, to Ta Ting ten, to Ta Chia ten."

Several points in this legend at once demand notice. Provisionally accepting Wang Kuo-wei's equation of the 6th character as 甲 chia, and that it stands for the full form elsewhere 上 甲 Shang-chia, who was otherwise named Wei 微, we find that as Wang (and myself

² See ibid., No. 1, p. 8, verso, left-hand upper corner.

previously) points out, the three names I, Ping, and Ting (乙, 禹, and 丁), each within a half square bracket, are the Pao I, Pao Ping, and Pao Ting of the Historical Memoirs, while, as Lo Chên-yü had already discovered, our Shih Jên and Shih Kuei are the Chu Jên and Chu Kuei of the same work. But Wang rightly draws attention to the slight discrepancy in the order of the three Paos between this inscription and the Memoirs. In the latter the succession is Ting, I, Ping. Here it is I, Ping, Ting. As between this very ancient original document and the Memoirs we cannot doubt that it is to the former we should give our trust.

A further noticeable feature in this list of what Wang calls the six hsien kung 先 公, or "ducal predecessors" of the Shang dynasty, is, that as now restored they correspond precisely to the order of the "Ten Stems" or "Ten Days", as Wang names them, save that four, the 5th, 6th, 7th, and 8th, are missing. Thus Shang Chia heads the series, followed in due order by I, Ping, and Ting, and the 9th and 10th end, as they should do, in Jên and Kuei. Hence, concludes Wang, the hitherto supposed rule of the Shang that deceased ancestors were known by the name of the day on which they were born, was probably a custom only instituted after the date of T'ang the Victorious, and was due to the fact that by his time the days of the births and deaths of his ancestral predecessors were already out of memory, and hence recourse was had to the sequence of the Ten Days to provide them with retrospective names, otherwise such a coincidence as the facts now show would be impossible, 故即用十日之 水以追名之否則不應如是巧合也.

This is certainly a cogent argument, but though the point is passed over by Wang it implies that a lacuna of four successors, corresponding to Wu, Chi, Kêng, and Hsin of the "Ten Days", occurs in the record, both in these relics and in the *Historical Memoirs*. Otherwise the Shih

Jên and Shih Kuei (alias Chu Jên and Chu Kuei) should have been styled Chu Wu and Chu Chi. Were there then four ducal ancestors not in the direct chain of descent by generations, and consequently not qualified to be included in the family sacrifices?

And this brings us to another curious point, which Wang Kuo-wei does not pass over. In the list of Shang rulers above given in original and translation there is one omission which is most unlooked for, that of Ta I 大 乙, as T'ang the Victorious is always styled on the Honan relics, and less striking, the two sovereigns, Wai Ping 外 氏 (Pu Ping ト 丙 on the Bones) and Chung Jên 仲 壬 are also absent. Why are these three sovereigns, and particularly why is T'ang, not found? Wang essays to explain, and for the two less renowned rulers, I think, with success. But the matter is less clear, it seems to me, as regards T'ang.

We know from Ssŭ-ma Ch'ien that Wai Ping and Chung Jên were both younger brothers of Tai Ting, the son and heir of Tang, though Tai Ting is declared to have died before ascending the throne.

But it is of importance to bear in mind that these inscriptions are not full records of the royal succession of the Shang dynasty, but the enumeration of those links in the catenary line of generations in family descent to whom certain ancestral worship and sacrifice must be duly offered. Hence it follows that the mention of Ta Ting does not prove that he actually reigned, nor conversely does the omission of the names of Wai Ping and Chung Jên disprove their claim to have been dynastic sovereigns. What the present recovered list of names does show is who were and who were not recognized as entitled to share in certain celebrations of the ruling family's ancestral worship.

Wang Kuo-wei's explanation is, in his own words, as follows: 大丁之後不數外丙中壬者以外丙 JRAS, JANUARY 1921. 中 壬 非 後 世 殷 天 子 之 所 自 出 故 也, that is, "The reason why after Ta Ting, Wai Ping, and Chung Jên are not enumerated, is that they were not later generations in the line whence the Yin dynasty Sons of Heaven had sprung."

"Not later generations," that is the point. Being brothers of Ta Ting they were of the same generation as he, and consequently not entitled to the same sacrifices.

But the omission of Ta I, that is Ch'êng T'ang, seems much harder to account for, nor do I find Wang Kuo-wei's explanation easy to accept, or, indeed, to follow. He says, "The reason why Ta I is not enumerated is that he being the Founder of the Dynasty, his ducal and princely predecessors were perhaps all joined in sacrifice with the Founder," 大乙為太祖先及先王或均合食於太祖故也. Perhaps so, but how does that explain the omission of the Founder's name?

However, despite these dubieties of detail, the net result of Wang Kuo-wei's brilliant perspicacity is that Ssŭ-ma Ch'ien's Historical Memoirs have been suddenly confirmed in particulars where confirmation would have been prima facie regarded as almost infinitely unlikely. And here I must leave Wang's comments on this curious discovery.

Between that fragment of recovered history and the palæographic riddle which the same scholarly critic has solved, as we are now about to see, there exists a link in the character # chia. It forms the liaison between the two discussions, the one historical, the other decipherative.

A formula that we meet with some frequency upon the Honan relics is represented in facsimile in Fig. 2 of the Plate, and appears to correspond in modern Chinese writing to the following text: 自一田至于多純衣tzǔ i t'ien chih yū to yū i. Sometimes either— i or于yū is omitted, sometimes both.

The rendering of this text would be, word for word, "From one field as-far-as to many rearings clothing." Obviously this is nonsense, and the inquirer has a choice between treating "one field ' and "many rearings" as place-names or as personal names. Lo Chên-yü had accordingly inserted To $y\ddot{u}$ ("many rearings") in his list of the latter. He also had determined, no doubt correctly, that \mathbf{x} i, usually meaning clothing, is one of the many designations of special sacrifices (and I venture to surmise that it here corresponds to the modern $\mathbf{\hat{s}}$ i, posterity), but there matters stopped for years, except that Lo had reached the further conclusion that the supposed t ien \mathbf{H} was in reality some other but unknown character.

For myself I had advanced some timid steps beyond this, but only in conjecture. I find a MS. note under the character # chia, "Can the unknown F be this? If so, 面 = F 甲 the Shang ancestor." This was written long before I had seen Wang's notes on the subject, but a private surmise is one thing and a published decision is another. Wang's identification will be found on p. 3 of No. 16 of the I Shu Ts'ung Pien. The passage commences 豆 君 上甲也, that is, "回 is Shang-chia." Proceeding to extract from the Lu Yü 魯 語 division of the Kuo Yü, a couple of sentences to the effect that "Shang-chia Wei successfully followed the lead of Hsieh [the original ancestor of the Shang family], and the men of Shang rendered him the sacrifice of requital".1 Wei's style was sometimes written F, adds Wang, who then points out the distinction between this last character when correctly written and the character 田 t'ien, in the phrase 田 符 t'ien shou, to hunt [is also the ordinary word for fields]. In I t'ien the horizontal and vertical strokes both unite with the

¹上甲微能帥契者也商人報焉. A note on the text explains that 報 pao is the 報德之祭也 sacrifice in requital of goodness.

perinteter, whereas in the closely similar character used for a personal name [viz. the old form of 甲 chia] these strokes are, as a rule, not continued to the bounding lines, a clear distinction between the two signs being thus afforded, though Wang correctly enough adds that frequently this distinction is not observed. The cross thus enclosed is, he says, the ancient character 甲 chia, found equally on the Bones and on Bronzes. Next he adduces the Shuo Wen's Lesser Seal form, see Fig. 3, and compares it with one occurring on an inscribed tally of Ts in dynasty date, see Fig. 4, where the cross is still visible, and is, he considers, likewise the early sign 甲 chia, the curving caps in both being, in his words, □ 之 跨 型 也, "erroncous alterations of □ wei."

Wang now proceeds to another point. "In the oracular sentences," he writes. "other examples of # chia are always written 十. In the 甲 chia of Shang-chia alone we find the form H. And the names Pao I, Pao Ping, and Pao Ting are written" as in Figs. 5, 6, and 7. "The 甲 [viz. +] within the \(\Pi \) wei is analogous with the \(Z_i \), 禹 ping, and T ting within the square bracket. But why they are composed with II and the square bracket we cannot tell. With regard to the form E having the additional - above, this is the same as -, the ancient shape of L shang above. In the oracular sentences the group," illustrated in Fig. 8, "sometimes occurs, and this is contracted to \(\overline{\pi} \) in the same way as the characters 帝 ti and 而 shih, etc., which were composed with [the ancient scriptions of] L shang, have the latter sometimes in the form __. sometimes in __." Wang concludes, after some further observations upon the stages of his investigation, "that they constitute an iron proof (as he phrases it) that 田 and 豆 are 上甲 shang chia."

There are two or three minor points in the foregoing on which I differ from this ingenious scholar, especially his apparent view that the single character \blacksquare is also to be read shang chia, whereas surely it can only be \blacksquare chia simply. But his main thesis seems indisputable.

So then we must revise our rendering once more, and we shall now read," From Shang-chia down to Many Rearings sacrifice will be offered."

But this still leaves the obscurity of the words to $y\ddot{u}$, "Many Rearings," to be cleared up. Who was he, or who were they?

It is here that Wang Kuo-wei comes to our rescue with a really brilliant flash of intuition. The arguments by. which he demonstrates the truth of his discovery must be laid before the reader in full, but it will be convenient, before doing so, to state at once the net result. result is that the two characters which I have transliterated to yü are, in these texts, actually 多后 to hou, and mean "(his) many successors". So that we have, as our final rendering of the original sentence, this: "From Shang-chia down to his many successors, sacrifice will be offered." This, of course, gives a completely intelligible and satisfactory explanation, if the reading as 后 hou can be vindicated. It will be well, therefore, to follow the course of Wang Kuo-wei's own demonstration, which will be found on pp. 8-9 of No. 16 of the I Shu Ts'ung Pien. This is occasioned by a short text in the collection he was engaged in deciphering and annotating, which, except for three words, need not concern us now. A copy of these, made from the photographic reproduction on p. 3 of No. 13 of the same Chinese Review, is shown in Fig. 9 of the Plate, and is deciphered by Wang as 后 祖 乙, Hou Tsu I.

The decipherer opens with the statement that 后 奥 後 通, that is, "后 hou is interchangeable with 後 hou." There is nothing new in that, and it need not detain us, nor need we linger over the passage immediately ensuing as to the identity of this sovereign, Hou Tsu I, in the dynastic list.

But what follows is arresting. "I find," says the writer, "that in the oracular sentences the variants of the character fit hou are numerous. Sometimes it appears as Fig. 10, sometimes as Fig. 11, sometimes as Fig. 12 or Fig. 13, sometimes as Fig. 14, sometimes as Fig. 15." To which let me add from my own collection a still more striking instance for his argument, seen in Fig. 16.

"All these characters," he continues, "are composed of \not \not $n\ddot{u}$, woman, and $\dot{\Box}$, the figure of a child, \not $tz\breve{u}$, inverted, being the Shuo Wen's character $\dot{\Box}$ or $\dot{\pi}$ t'u [so, according to Chinese authority, but not found as an independent character]; sometimes with $\dot{\Box}$ mu, mother, replacing $\dot{\Box}$ $n\ddot{u}$. They depict childbirth $\dot{\Box}$ $\dot{\Box}$ $\dot{\Box}$ $\dot{\Box}$ The groups of two or of three dots depict the amniotic fluid at the moment of birth, $\dot{\Box}$ $\dot{\Box}$

Strictly this last figure is a slightly altered scription of $\bigwedge j \ell n$, man, and has usually survived in the li or modern script as $\digamma shih$, corpse.

"Accordingly," adds Wang, "speaking as regards the form of the character, this is the Shuo Wen's 'occasional variant' (或體 huo t'i) 試 of the character 育 yü, to rear, produce, the former being composed with 頓 mei, viz. 母 mu [for these are mere variants] and π , the inverted ancient shape of 子 tzŭ, son, and corresponding exactly to these [Bone] forms. Accordingly the act of childbirth is the original significance of this character." (The significance of the character, let us note in passing, not the meaning of the word.)

So far so good. The analysis of the character shows the outline of the mother, and below her the infant at delivery appearing in the natural or normal head presentation, while the dots represented above, at the side of or below it, symbolize the amniotic fluid. And here I may perhaps suggest a truer view of the element 流, usually believed after the Shuo Wen to represent the character 子 tzŭ inverted, and exhibiting the hair of the new-born babe. But the hair at that time is not so marked a feature that it is likely to have been specially indicated, and Figs. 14 and 16 seem rather to point to the amniotic liquid as the real origin of the three strokes at the foot of 流.

And now returning to the main subject, all the foregoing refers to a variant of the character 實, the spoken word corresponding to which is yü, not hou. How, then, does Wang Kuo-wei account for this discrepancy? "Furthermore," he proceeds, and we are reaching the vital links of his argument, "the figures," Nos. 17, 18, and 19, "all depict an inverted child behind a person," 皆 祭 倒 子在人後. He uses the odd words tsai jen hou, and not tsai jên hsia, "beneath a person," because his argument requires the word "behind", and continues: "Hence, by extension of meaning, was developed the sense of the word 'after, later, posterior', in the phrase 先 後 hsien hou, earlier and later, before and after, anterior and posterior. And by a further extension was evolved the sense of 'successor', or 'Prince who continues the body', 繼體君也. The Shuo Wen's entry under fi hou is, 'A prince who continues the body. Depicts a human figure. [The wise prince, 后 hou] distributes his commands and thus informs the Four Quarters [a quotation from the I King]. Hence the element $\int i [sic]$ is composed with -i, one, and \(\subseteq k'ou\), mouth.'" The meaning of this sentence of the Shuo Wen's text as it now stands, being obscure and inconsistent, I have made shift with the English rendering as well as I could. Tuan Yü-ts'ai says the text has been garbled and added to.

Wang Kuo-wei now resumes his own explanatory comments. "Thus, the character $f_{\overline{n}}$ hou, originally depicting the human figure, the element $f_{\overline{n}}$ should be an

erroneous alteration of \nearrow [viz. \digamma shih, a modification of the character \land $j \notin n$, man], while $\rightharpoonup \square$ are also an erroneous alteration of the figure of an inverted child [viz. of \triangle]."

This reconstruction of 后 hou from Fig. 19 is very attractive, and to me convincing, all the more so as no other example of the character of older date than the Han dynasty can be brought forward in competition.

The argument now proceeds, "The constructive significance of the character 后 hou having originally followed that of 毓 yü, to rear, produce, in the course of development the later form of the sign for childbirth was specialized in the two shapes 硫 and 育 yü, while the character for the word hou, Prince Successor of the Blood, was specialized in the shape &, whereupon two characters had been created,1 and by a further erroneous change the latter form became fir hou, while for the syllable hou, in the expression 先 後 hsien hou, before and after, a further and separate type was used [viz. one constructed of quite other graphic elements]. The Shuo Wen then entered these forms under three different radicals [viz. under its 528th, 335th, and 34th], but the fact is that the three characters 毓, 後, and 后 were originally one character, 其實毓後后三字本一 字 也." [I have translated this literally, rendering 字 taŭ by "character" in both instances. But in that form it is not true, nor is it what Wang really wishes to say. we rendered 字 by "word" in each case, the statement would be true, but would not adequately convey what the writer did wish to say. This is clearly that three now different characters, two of which are derived from the same original graphic type, while one, 後, is not, all

1引申其後產子之字專用毓育二形繼體君之字專用各形遂成二字

represent the same original word hou, meaning "after, later, successor". The translation given above is therefore faithful to the words and false to the intention of the writer. But such a result is inevitable if Chinese scholars will not learn to distinguish between things so vitally unlike as written characters and spoken words.]

We need not here follow Wang in the succeeding paragraphs, in which he seeks to identify the 后祖乙, Hou Tsu I, or "Later ancestor I", with the Shang sovereign 武 Z. Wu I. But afterwards he resumes, "In the oracular sentences the character 后 [viz. that shown in Figs. 10 to 15 of the Platel is also used for the word Hou, Prince Successor of the Blood. There frequently occurs the sentence 自上甲至于多后, 'From Shangchia down to his many successors.' And, again, T # 2 于五后, 'On the day ting ch'ou approached with offerings the Five Sovereigns (or Princely Successors)'" [see Yin Hsii Shu Ch'i K'ao Shih, vol. i, p. 30]. Wang then corroborates these uses of Fi hou from the Book of History and the Odes, and concludes his argument by the statement, "Thus the men of Shang designated their forebears as 后 hou. Hence the expression 多 后 to hou is similar to the expressions 多子 to tzŭ, the numerous children, 多 + to shih, the numerous officers, and 多方 to fang, the numerous regions, that occur in the Book of History. And the expression 五后 wu hou, the Five Princes, resembles the passage in the Odes, 三后在天, san hou tsai t'ien, 'The Three Princes were in Heaven,' and that in the Book of History, 三后成攻, san hou ch'éng kung, 'When the Three Princes had accomplished their work.' These passages are now adduced as equivalents in their significance, through their connexion with the hou of the phrase hsien hou 先後, earlier and later, predecessors and successors."

In the foregoing masterly little essay (so it seems to me), there are two points passed over in a regrettable silence by the Chinese scholar. One is that he ignores the fact that at some period there must have been a transfer of the character in from the word hou to the word yü, to rear, to which it was already attached at any rate at the date of the Shuo Wen. The second is his silence on another fact recorded in Kanghsi's Dictionary, namely, that the characters for this syllable $y\ddot{u}$, to rear, have also an exceptional sound chou 胄, together with the special sense of Al yin, descendants, successors. What bearing has this exceptional sound and sense of 育 on the group of facts discussed above? The sense accords with that of 后 or 後 hou, but the sound is irreconcilable with the sound of either hou or yü, and could not have had a common phonetic parentage with either. Yet there would seem to be some unexplained relation.

But apart from these matters of detail, Wang Kuo-wei's researches have been most fruitful. Let me summarize what he has brought to light on this topic alone.

In the first place he has deciphered and made fully intelligible a hitherto inscrutable text frequently recurring.

- 2. In doing so, he has determined a new variant of the character \mathbf{F} shang, identical in its abraded shape with \mathbf{F} i, one.
- 3. He has also identified a sign sometimes not to be distinguished from, and always suggesting, the character 田 t'ien, fields, and to hunt, with the well-known character 甲 chia, as to which I shall have something to say later.
- 4. He has discovered that a sign which, according to the *Shuo Wen*, is a variant of \mathbf{f} $y\ddot{u}$, to rear, was in Shang times the written form of the word *hou*, after, later, successors; and
- 5. He has disclosed the true pictographic origin of the character π hou, and shown the stages by which the present misleading graphic wreck was reached.

To a fellow-ploughman in the stiff and stubborn clay of Chinese palæography these successes perhaps appear more signal than they may to other people, but in any case they well deserve to be made known to Occidental students.

There are a few supplementary observations that I should like, in conclusion, to put on record in connexion with these decipherments of Mr. Wang Kuo-wei.

The latter, in his equation of the apparent **H** t'ien character with what is now written **H** chia, has offered no suggestion as to its constructive significance. I propose to do so now.

I believe the designer of the earliest character for the word chia drew a crude outline of a hide cuirass, which, as Laufer has described at length in his Chinese Clay Figures, p. 174 et seq., " was a cuirass made in imitation of a coat." There exists a variant of the character, seemingly unknown to either Lo Chên-yü or Wang Kuo-wei, several examples of which occur in my collection, one, H. 227, figured in the Plate, Fig. 20, being Shang-chia. This may perhaps be regarded as a transition form between the cross-in-a-rectangle variants and the figure-earlier in type, if not in timeabout to be described, the original of which appears on a bronze styled the Ch'ü I چ 泰, with an inscription reproduced in facsimile in the Chün Ku Lu Chin Wen, vol. vii, p. 16. The character stands second in Fig. 21 of the Plate. This passage Wu Shih-fên, the author of the above work, transcribed as 錫 袞 晃 干 戈, tz'ŭ [sic] kun mien kan ko, "(I) bestow on you the robe and cap of ceremony and the shield and halberd." But a later and very sound critic, Sun I-jang 孫 詒 讓, in his Ku Chou Shih I 古 籕 拾 遺, pt. 中, p. 17, has proposed an admirable emendation, much approved by some subsequent scholars, by reading 甲胄 chia chou, "cuirass and helmet," in place of "robe and cap of

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of the characters and the spirit of the text. Sun analyses the second character as from \bigstar i, clothing, and the contained T-shaped element which he considers to be \maltese chia contracted. If that be so, the sign would correspond to the modern character \maltese , read both chia and hsia, a jacket, rather than to \maltese alone. The relationship of form between this example from the Ch'u I Bronze and the cross-in-a-rectangle compound of the Bones is not altogether clear. Can it be that whereas the old scription of \bigstar i, clothing, shows the two sleeves, the ancient corslet or cuirass was made-like a waistcoat, and being sleeveless was represented by a simple diamond-shaped or oval outline?

However this may be, it seems tolerably certain that the ancient pictographic form of 甲 chia was modelled upon a cuirass or corslet rather than upon a flower-bud, as the author of the Shuo Wen asserts in the statement that the character chia, Fig. 3, 從 木 戴 字 甲 之 象 也, "is composed with wood capped with the figure of a bud-scale." And strong confirmation of the corslet view is furnished by the character 我 jung, arms, military equipment. The Lesser Seal of this is Fig. 22, composed of the two elements 戈 ko, halberd, and 甲 chia, cuirass. As neither of these elements can be used as a phonetic in a character pronounced jung, it is obvious that they are both present for their ideographic value, and in that capacity they serve very appropriately, whereas the combination of halberd and flower-bud is meaningless.

Here we must stop, but it is to be hoped that we have not heard the last of Wang Kuo-wei's revelations. Meantime, more insight to his penetrating eye; more power to his hermeneutic elbow!

Geographical Notes

BY THE REV. PROFESSOR A. H. SAYCE

Was' Oropus the Classical Name of Carchemish?

The name of the important Seleucid city which occupied the site of the ancient Carchemish is still uncertain. German scholars have identified it with the Oropus or Europus of classical geography, but as is pointed out by Commander Hogarth, who has discussed the question very fully in Carchemish, pt. i, pp. 19 sqq. (1914), if Oropus is identified with the town placed by the Peutinger Table between Birejik and the Sajur, and this again is identified with Carchemish, the mileage attached to it will not agree with the actual facts. There is the further difficulty that, although one of the modern names given to the site is Jerabîs, which could be derived from Oropus, or rather its later Greek deformation Europus, the more usual and probably older name is Jerablûs, which is Hierapolis.

But there is yet another difficulty. Ammianus Marcellinus (xiv, 8) states that one of the chief cities of Northern Syria in the neighbourhood of the Euphrates was Hierapolis, which was also called Ninus. The codices (Vaticanus and Petrensis) read Hierapoli veterennino, which has hitherto been wrongly emended. But it is evident that the first n should be u, as is so frequently the case in MSS., u or v standing here, as elsewhere, for v(el). Hence the original text will have been Hierapoli vetere v(cl) Nino, "the older Hierapolis or Ninus." The later Hierapolis was the modern Membij, where the archæological remains are not earlier than the Seleucid era, and which after the foundation of its temple inherited the traditions and name of the more ancient city. This explains why Membij (Mabug, Bambykê) is unknown to the Assyrian inscriptions.

My decipherment of the so-called Hittite hieroglyphic inscriptions (which are really those of the Kaskians and Cilicians) has cleared up the origin of the name Ninus. Nana or Nina was the water-goddess (ni signifying "water" in Hittite); hence Nana, the mother of Attys, is said to have been a water-nymph, the daughter of the River Sangarios, a name which appears in that of the Sajur, Assyrian Sagura, Sangura, south of Carchemish. In the Carchemish texts the name of Nana is frequently replaced by the picture of a horse's head, with or without the phonetic complement ana. The belief in a water-horse has spread from the country where the horse was first domesticated throughout Western Asia and Europe, and in our own island has produced the kelpie or water-spirit of the Highlands, which assumes a horse's form. The Greek hippocampus or water-horse has played a conspicuous part in art, and the old belief is still embodied in the name of the hippopotamus of Egypt. Carchemish was not only situated on the banks of the Euphrates, it also commanded the chief ford of the high road from east to west, and it was therefore appropriate that it should have been called "the city of Nana". In the texts a synonym of Karkamisiyas, "a Carchemishian," is Naná-tis and Niná-tis, "a Ninian." The statement of Ammianus Marcellinus has thus been fully verified.

And now to return to Oropus. In the geographical list of Ramses III at Medinet Habu, the names of Mitanni and Carchemish are followed by Uru with the determinative of place. Uru is the Assyrian uru "the city", which with the Mitannian definite suffix -pi would be written Uru-pi. The suffix is found in a good many geographical names in that part of the world—Tunip, for instance, by the side of Tuna, Til-Barsip, by the side of Tulburs, etc. In Uru-pi, accordingly, I see the origin of the Greek Oropus.

According to Stephanus of Byzantium Oropus was "formerly called Tel-missos". Is Tel-missos intended for Carchemish, tel taking the place of karka, which was identified

with the Aramaic 'createdel'? In WAI. iii, 66, Ob. d 33 the name of Carchemish is actually written Karku-(AN)mas, "the citadel of (the god) Mas," and we know from the Old Testament that such etymological puns were common in the ancient Semitic world. In this case it would appear that the Karkamish urn of the Egyptian List was interpreted as meaning "the city of Carchemish", and not that Carchemish and "the city" were separate places. On the other hand, according to Shalmaneser III, Pitru, the Pethor of the Old Testament, called Pdri in the geographical list of Thothmes III, lay a little to the south of Carchemish, between that city and the Sajur, and Pitru may be a Mitannian or Asianic word for "city". In Vannic patari signifies "city", and seems to be the same word as the Pteria of Herodotus, usually supposed to be the district of Boghaz Keui, though we are told that it was near Sinôpê. At all events, the word teira in one or more of the Asianic languages had that signification; thus we have Teira, Thya-teira, by the side of Thyia, Adrianu thêrai, Têmeno-thyra, Grimenothêra, Das-teira, by the side of Das-Tarkon and Das-menda, etc.,2 to which must be added the Khata-tirra of the Assyrian inscriptions. Some of the coins of Tarsus, again, have the inscription $o\rho\tau\nu\gamma o$ - $\theta\eta\rho a$, which cannot signify "quail-hunt", but must be a Greek form of some such name as Artuga-teira. Artug is named in the geographical lists of the eighteenth and nineteenth Egyptian dynasties. Since the ideograph of "city" has the phonetic complement -ri in the cuneiform texts of Boghaz Keui, we may conclude that in the Hittite language spoken there the full word was either teiri or patari.3 The Greek Kybis-tra always appears as

¹ Nin-lil is said to be "the queen of heaven of Carchemish". Her Hittite name was Khebe or Khiba.

² Ramsay, Cities and Bishoprics of Phrygia, p. 144.

³ The name of the Lycian city Patara would not be connected if Stephanus of Byzantium is right in saying that it was the Lycian word for "a chest". Pteria reappears, letter for letter, in Puterias, which an inscription of the Vannic king Menuas (Sayce, xxxiii) gives as the

Khubis-na, "the land of Khubis," in the cuneiform inscriptions of Boghaz Keui and Assyria; in a Hittite hieroglyphic inscription found at Andaval (Messerschmidt, Corpus inscriptionum Hettiticarum, xxxi, C) it is written Ku-bi-is-s-a mias, "the city of Kubis," where the compound ideograph mias would have been read teiri in the language in which that word was used. The lengthened form teirya would have become $\tau \epsilon \rho a$ (for $\tau \epsilon \rho y a$) in Greek, and so the -tra which we find in Asianic geographical names of the later period.

All this leads me to the conclusion that the name Uru-pi was employed in a double sense. Originally it would have denoted the township south of Carchemish, known to us as Pethor, but since Carchemish was par excellence the city of that region the title came to be attached to it, and eventually passed to the Greeks under the forms of Orôpus and Eurôpus. The double employment of the name would explain why the Peutinger Table (1) does not name the station between Birejik and the Sajur, and (2) gives a mileage which suits the site of Pethor but not the site of Carchemish.

In the sixth century Europus, which "popular etymology" substituted for Oropus, appears as Aghropos and Aghripos in Syriac documents. Aghripos could easily have yielded an Arabic Jerabas or Jerbas by assimilation to Jerablûs. i.e. Hierapolis, which must therefore have been the more customary name of the place, and Jerabas would naturally pass into Jerabîs, the normal plural of a word Jerbas. Dr. Trowbridge, the head of the American College at Aintab, told me many years ago that some of his converts who lived in the neighbourhood of Jerablûs had informed him that ancient name of Palu on the northern bank of the Euphrates (the modern Murad-su), about midway between Malatiyeh and Van. It lay near Gupa, the Assyrian Kuppu, Khuzâna (new Khozan), which is probably the Khuzarina of the Assyrians, and Aassa, called Aassata in the inscriptions of Boghaz Keui. A variant form of the word teira probably recurs in Qulbi-tarris, one of the cities of Melitene conquered by the Vannic king Sarduris II (Sayce, 1). Qulbi-tarris must be the Kholma-dara of classical geography, Qulbi or Kholma being the deity Khalmis of the Hittite hieroglyphic inscriptions.

Jerablûs was the "Arabic" and Jerabîs the "Turkish" name. Many of the places in that part of the world bear double names, as I learned when I was travelling there; the first village I passed after leaving Bab, for instance, was called Kebêsîn by the Arabs and Bash-Keui by the Turks, and an old city site near the ford across the Sajur was known as Tel Mansûr to the Turks and Tel el-Yansûl (also pronounced Yansûr and Yansûb) to the Arabs.

By way of conclusion I must add that the Mitannian -pi was also pronounced -wi, and could therefore be represented in cuneiform by -mi. In fact, the non-Semitic absence of distinction between m and w in Assyrian is one of several examples of Mitannian or Hittite influence that can be indicated upon Assyro-Babylouian. Sir W. M. Ramsay has shown that m, b, and w are interchangeable in the geographical names of Asia Minor, and in the cunciform texts the same name can be written with m, w, b, and p. The character 4has the various values of mi, pi, wi, and yi. Consequently, Uru-pi could also appear in script as Uru-mi, Uru-ma, and the question, therefore, arises whether "the Hittite soldiers, Kaskians and Urumians", mentioned by Tiglath-pileser I as having occupied Subarti or Northern Syria-not to be confounded with the Supria of the Assyrian period 1-did not come from Carchemish. 'Urma (the modern Urûm), a little north of Carchemish, is already named in the geographical List of Thothmes III (No. 208 and perhaps 313),2 while in the Hittite hieroglyphic texts the writers describe themselves as Kaskians. Thus, in the earliest text yet found at Carchemish, Yakhanas, who gave his name to the conquered district of Yakhan, calls himself not only "a Hittite" (Khat-tuwias), but also "a Kaskian" (Ki-is-ka-a-ni-is), and he further takes the titles of a follower of the god Tarkus and of "the Sun-god of the Kaskian land".

¹ In a Boghaz Keui text (Keilschrifttexte aus Boghazkoi, i, 22, Rev. 6) the land of Subari comes between Aleppo (Khalba) and Kinza.

² Maspero identifies it with the Greek Urma Gigantos. Gigantos is probably an echo of the old name of the district Gagati.

THE CITY OF BURSAKHANDA

In the Proceedings of the Society of Biblical Archeology, December, 1915, I have transliterated and translated an interesting cuneiform text discovered in 1913-14 by the German excavators in the house of the Hittite Resident at Tel el-Amarna. The text, which is in the Hittite form of cuneiform script, contains a semi-legendary account of a campaign of Sargon of Accad in the later Cilicia, and was the first tablet of a series which seems to have been devoted to the earlier history of Asia Minor. The chief objective of Sargon's campaign was the city of Bursakhanda, which was situated on a mountain, and from which he brought back to Babylonia two species of fig-tree, vines, roses (wurtinnu), and other northern plants, as well as the ulpanu or lupanu, the nature of which is unknown. That the campaign of Sargon was a fact is now proved by Dr. Forrer's discovery of a tablet from Boghaz Keui, at present at Berlin, which records the invasion of eastern Asia Minor by a king of the dynasty of Akkad, and its repulse by the combined forces of the kingdoms of Kanes, Khatti, and Kursaura, the Garsaura of classical geography.

Another Boghaz Keui tablet, which embodies the annals of the Hittite king Telibinus, and has been translated by Professor Hrozny, informs us that Khattusilis I, the founder of the Khattu empire, conquered the Cilician cities of Khubis-na, Tûwanuwa, Nenassa, Lânda, Zallara, Barsukhanta, and Lu...na. Khubis-na is known to us from the Assyrian inscriptions, which show that it was the classical Kybis-tra; Tûwanuwa is the neighbouring Tyana; Lânda may be the Leandis of Ptolemy; and Nenassa reminds us of the classical Nanessos. Lu...na may be the Lamena of Shalmaneser III, which lay between Tanakun (Thanakê) and Tarsus, and was probably the Lapana of the Tel el-Amarna tablets. Barsukhanta is evidently the Bursakhanda of the Sargon legend, and will have been in the vicinity of Kybistra and Tyana, that is to say on one of the northern heights of

the Bulgar Dagh. Unnamisu, where Sargon is said to have spent his third year, will have been on the coast of the Gulf of Antioch, possibly where the Iônê of Stephanus Byzantinus was situated. It is possible that Barsukhanda should be identified with the city of [B]arrukhunda, which Tiglathpileser I places in the province of Qumani. In KAB. iv, 13, Obv. 47, the name is written Barsukhuntas.

JAVAN

In Gen. x, 2, 4, Javan is the brother of Tubal and Meshech in Eastern Asia Minor, and the father of Elishah-the Alasia of the cuneiform records, whose name was preserved in that of the Alêian (= Alêsyan) plain of Greek geography, as well as of Tarshish or Tarsus, of Kittim and of Rodanim, that is to say Cyprus and Rhodes. The geographical position assigned to him is confirmed by notices in Greek writers. Stephanus of Byzantium tells us that the Syrian Antioch was built on the site of the ancient Ione, and the Periplus Maritima states that the town at the mouth of the Pyramus, afterwards known as Kephalos, was also called Ionê. accordance with this Kedrenos states that the older name of Antioch was Iopolis. The Egyptian officer Amon-em-heb in the time of Thothmes III describes "the land of Mount Uan" as being to the west of Aleppo, and in the "Second" Arzawan letter in the Tel el-Amarna collection Labaia calls himself memis-ta Uanwannas, "thy spokesman of the land of Uan" (Knudtzon, 32, 2). In an Assyrian geographical list the name appears as Yaêna (WAI. ii, 53. 8), the country of Yaêna being preceded by the country of Cilicia (Khilakku) and followed by the country of Malatiyeh (Melidi). Yaêna by the side of Uan presents the same vowel-change as the Heb. yayin, "wine," Assyrian inu, by the side of olivor, vinum. In fact it is possible that the country took its name from the vine; there was a city of Oinoandos somewhere in that part of the world. Mr. Tomkins was probably right in identifying the Uanai of the geographical list of Thothmes III (No. 145) with Uan.

KAS AND KUSA

The "country of Kasi", also written Kaśi and Kasse, in the Tel el-Amarna tablets, has been erroneously identified with the Kassite people of Babylonia, and supposed to represent Babylonia. Babylonia, however, is always called Karduniyas in the tablets, and the name of Kasi is given only (1) to Cush or Ethiopia (Knudtzon, 49.20; in 131.13 it is matâti Kasi, "the lands of Cush"), and (2) to a district which adjoined Mitanni, Naharaim, and the Hittites. Thus, in Knudtzon 76. 15 it is coupled with Mitanni, in 116. 71 we have Mitanni, Kaśi, and the Hittites, and in 288. 36 it is joined with Nakhrima or Naharaim. It thus corresponds with "the country of Kuså" of the Assyrian texts. A letter published by Dr. Pinches in the Proceedings of the Society of Biblical Archæology, 1881, p. 13, informs us that the cities of Qarnê—the Karna and Atu-geren of the Egyptian geographical lists-Dâna, Kullania (the Biblical Calneh), Arpad, and Isana, were all situated in the country of the Kusa or Kusaans, which must, therefore, have comprised that part of Northern Syria which lay immediately to the north of Naharaim. In the larger "Hittite" hieroglyphic inscription from Hamath, line 1, as copied by myself from the original stone, the king calls himself "king of the land of Kus" (Kusi-mia), and in the Carchemish inscriptions one of the royal titles is king of "Kas" or "Kus" (Kusannas). It is worth notice that the first part of the name of the conqueror from Naharaim who subjugated Palestine in the twelfth century B.C. was Chushan (Judges iii, 8), which would exactly correspond with Kusanna(s), "of the land of Kus." In any case, the name of the Kusâ was preserved in classical times in that of Mons Casius.

THE LEAD-MINES OF EARLY ASIA MINOR

The Cappadocian tablets, which belong to the age of the Third Dynasty of Ur (B.C. 2400), show that the mining and

export of lead was one of the chief industries carried on at Ganis, now Kara Eyuk, 18 kilometres N.E. of Kaisariyeh. According to a tablet in my possession the lead was exported to Assyria (mat A-sur), and from thence distributed throughout the Near East. The names are given of a good many of the places in which the metal was found. Among them are Abê, Amas, Nakhur (evidently the Semitic Nahor), Sasakki, Sarniga. and perhaps Lusi and Niri, to which a fragment in my possession adds Zanuki. Another fragment belonging to myself refers to "a man of Abê" (A-be-im).

A Short Anthology of Guran Poetry

BY MAJOR E. B. SOANE, C.B.E.

THE Anthology is a manuscript furnished by Dr. Sa'id, of Sina, to the British Museum, numbered Or. 6444; the writer is working from a photographic reproduction made for him in 1908 by order of Mr. A. G. Ellis.

The distance from the Oriental Department of the British Museum and absence of sufficient books of reference—this article is being written in Sulaimania, South Kurdistan—is a handicap on adequate comparison of words.

The Anthology is a collection made at Sina by Abdu'l Mu'min, son of Jamālu'd Dīn, Mubayyinu'l Mulk, between the years of A.D. 1783 and 1785, and contains specimens of the work of twenty-seven poets, and a number of fragments classified according to the final letter of the rhyme.

It has not been possible to ascertain the dates of any but a very few of the poets, who were all natives of Sina and the district of Aorāmān on the Perso-Turkish frontier, which secluded mountain mass is still the home of the Gūrānī language, and where many more interesting manuscripts are still to be found.

The period during which the collection was made was that of the semi-independent Vālī of Ardalān Khosrū Khān, who, like his predecessors, encouraged an entourage of poets and littérateurs, in which he was imitated by the Sultāns of Aorāmān-i-Takht, who, though subject to him, were semi-independent, as they are to-day.

After the rise of the Qājār dynasty, Ardalān fell from its high estate, and as the family grew effete, married Persian ladies, and lost power, the Court was dispersed and the writing of the Gūrān language (which had for years been only artificially kept alive in Sina by its recognition as the official language) fell into disfavour and ceased.

Gūrānī is a dying language. It was in all probability but a dialect of Persian at the Arab conquest, and owing to its location in the mountainous districts of the Kermānshāh and Ardalān provinces, escaped both the grafting of Arab words and the development and change which ensued in Modern Persian.

It was not, however, to exist undisturbed. The seventeenth century saw the rise to power of the Kurdish princes of Rawandiz, Bitlis, Amadia, and the Kurd Sardars of the Mukri. The tribes on the Turkish side shared in the spirit of conquest exhibited at the time by the Turks, and took the opportunity to spread westwards and southwards into Persia, absorbing some populations and driving others farther into the mountains. The most notable historical example of the Kurd invasion is Zuhāb. Here Abdāl the Bājilān from the Khoshnāw district, at the head of a body of tribesmen, emigrated to Zuhāb and the lands now known as Jūānrūd. They found living there a confederation of tribes which they promptly reduced and gave them the Kurmānjī name of Gūrān, meaning "bondmen" and "peasants", which name is to-day that of a large heterogeneous collection of tribal elements in the locality. As time went on sections of Kurd tribes adopted the habits of the newly named Güran and shared with them their winter and summer habitats. result is to-day that the so-called Gūrān tribe of Zuhāb and Jūānrūd contains two distinct elements—the Kurd sections, all Sunni Muslims, speaking their own Kurmānjī, and the "Gūrān" original sections, mostly Ali Allahī, non Muslim by faith, and speaking the "Gūrānī". The Bājilān family itself has so well preserved the original condition that to-day the members of "begzādas" of Bājilān speak Kurmānjī, while the tribe formed of the original inhabitants of Zuhāb plain speak a dialect of Gürānī.

In Ardalān gradual penetration was more the rule, and it is a matter of history that by A.D. 1650 the bulk of the population already spoke Kurmānjī, which is now the language

of the capital, Sina town. In short, to-day the Gūrānī is spoken only by the tribes of Aorāmān, Rījāb, Kandūleh (near Kermānshāh), and the original sections of the Sinjābī, Gūrān, and Bājilān tribes, representing but a small fraction of the population, and among these it is dying out, Kurmānjī taking its place.

The Gūrānī language itself has been termed a Kurdish dialect. It is, however, not so at all. Kurmānjī has its characteristic grammatical forms, vocabulary, and idiom which have nothing in common with Gūrānī. The latter, however, shows in its grammatical forms that it is but a Persian variant, long separated from the mother tongue, and having borrowed widely in more recent times both from Kurmānjī and from Persian. It is the most northerly of the group of Persian dialects represented by Luristān and comes very close to the Lur languages of extreme northern Luristān. At the same time it is the least affected by later Modern Persian, or else split earlier from the original mother tongue.

The dialect of Gūrānī spoken by the "Gūrān" tribes varies in some numerous minor details, but preserves the main characteristics, the most conspicuous of which is the aversion to initial kh-, which it turns to w-, or has, perhaps, never used at all.

Houtum Schindler, who made extensive studies on Aryan dialects in Persia, mentions the Gūrānī language as spoken by the tribe and by the people of Kerind and Bīẃanīj. He, however, erroneously includes among the Gūrānī-speaking tribesmen the Nairzhī and Tāīshaī ("Nirizi Taischi"), who are Kurds speaking Kurmānjī.¹ The words and sentences he quotes show that the modern Gūrānī tends increasingly to absorb Modern Persian and Kurmānjī words and to lose its individuality. The Gūrānī of the Anthology is very much less influenced by outside languages.

A further proof of the relation of Gūrānī to Modern

¹ "Beitrage zum Kurdischen Wortschatze," in the Journal of the Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft.

Persian is the resemblance seen here and there with such dialects as that of Sō and other well-preserved Persian dialects in the interior.

Still more interesting than its connexion with the dialects of Persia are some important features it shares with the peculiar Zāzā language of mid-Kurdistan. This latter, a non-Kurmānjī language, while it has borrowed very widely from Kurmānjī, is of the same class as Gūrānī, but unaffected by New Persian, and in some features represents a better preserved specimen of what Gūrānī may once have been. With Gūrānī it shares the repugnance to initial kh-, giving initial w-where Avestic and Old Persian have initial hw, hv. Unlike Gūrānī, however, it is archaic in its numerals, particularly giving such words as hirye for "three" and das for "ten".

ABBREVIATIONS.—The following are adopted in the text:—

OP Old Persian.

Av Avestic.

Phl Pahlavi.

NP New Persian.

Kur Kurmānjī, the language of the Kurds.

Kan Kandūlaī, a Gūrānī dialect spoken near Kermānshāh.

GuT Tribal Gūrānī.

Rījābī and Bīwanījī dialects of Gūrānī.

A Modern Aorāmānī.

Lk Lekī of Kermānshāh district.

L North Luri.

Z Zāzā.

S Dialect of Sō near Isfahan.

M Māzanderānī.

The specimens quoted are taken at random from the Anthology. The verse form throughout is the same; couplets, some series of which rhyme. The poem form does not fall into any of the categories of conventional Persian poem form, being but a succession of couplets with internal rhyme, though the rhyme occasionally persists through several

couplets. A feature of the poems is the introduction in some cases by a defective couplet, the first line of which forms part of the second line, as:—

Yārān lālī dīm Ārū je lālān ajab lālī dīm Shīrīn nīshteran

Na dör i dīdash hazār nīshteran

Shīrīn nēāwā

Pai sufta dilān purr shang nēāwā

The metres are natural ones, and, like the poem forms, do not conform to Persian rules, which gives the verse a freer swing and more natural cadence. Like most Lur and Kurd songs, they should be heard sung for the metre to be appreciated.

Specimen 1.—Folio 11 of manuscript. Shaikh Ahmad Takhtī of Aorāmān i Takht, circa A.D. 1640. Three verses to Autumn.

Hawr i nö āmā kham pōsh o namīn Min dūrīn wilāt o dard muhtamīn. Tā je hawr mabū yek qatra rēzān Min je dīdam sēl hūnāw horēzān. Nam i nō pāīz o kham hijrān bakht Magīrān bi gird jastaī sang sakht.

Translation

New clouds have come, grief enveloping and moist I [am] from a far land, overwhelmed with sorrow. No sooner will the clouds let fall a drop

Than from my eyes a torrent of blood-tears will outpour.

The dews of new autumn and the griefs of the exile Close around one's soul a hard rock.

Notes on Text

I have only noticed words calling for attention as different from NP. Ordinary NP words or Arabic loan-words are assumed to be known.

Verse 1, line 1.

hawr, "cloud." This form is met with throughout Kur and L. Cf. Av awra, Phl avar, S awr, R? A, Lk hawr.

āmā. 3rd pers. sing. pret. ind. of infin. āmān, "to come." A purely Gūrānī and L word. Kan, R, A, GuT āmān, Z āmē. kham, "grief." Hardening of initial gh- to kh- is common to L Gūrānī and Kur; cf. bākh, dākh, etc.

 $nam\bar{\imath}n$, "possessing moisture." The attributive suffix $-\bar{\imath}n$ is common to Gūrānī as to NP.

Line 2.

wilāt, Arabic wilāyat, the usual Gūrānī form of the word. Verse 2, line 1.

je, "from." NP az, OP hacha, Av hacha, Phl aj, Kan zhe, R je, Z sa, se. Kur does not use the word except in the northern dialects in the form zhe, meaning "for".

 $mab\bar{u}$. 3rd pers. sing. pres. ind. of $b\bar{u}in$, "to become." No non-NP dialect uses the NP root shav, every one has preserved the use of root $b\bar{u}$, Av $b\bar{u}$, Phl $b\bar{u}$.

Line 2.

 $h\bar{u}n\bar{a}w$, "bloodwater." NP $kh\bar{u}n\bar{a}b$. The use of initial h and w where NP shows kh will be frequently remarked, Av $voh\bar{u}ni$, GuT $h\bar{u}n$, A, Lk, R $kh\bar{u}n$, Z goen.

*horēzān. 3rd pers. pl. pret. ind. from infin. horēzān, "to rise, come up, and forth." This verb, which is non-existent in NP, is common to many dialects, but does not exist in Kur. It is a compound of hor and ēzān. The prefix hor, though an uncommon variant of Av fra-, Phl far-, is met with in various forms in other dialects. The root ēz is apparently the Gūrānī variant of Av root sta. Cf. NP bar khāstan, Kur hal stān, Lk horesān, Kan, R, A horēzān, Z weristān, L virisan, Maz roots pares, ores, vores, virisht.

Verse 3, line 2.

 $mag\bar{\imath}r\bar{a}n$. 3rd pers. pl. pres. ind. of $g\bar{\imath}r\bar{a}n$, "to take." In conjunction with the next word, bigird, means "to close

round, envelop". The use of the tense particle m- is characteristic of Gūrānī and L, as opposed to the Kur da-, a-. jasta, "being, entity." I can find no parallel in NP for this word, which is frequently seen in Gūrānī. Kan does not use it. Justi, in a note on Houtum Schindler, suggests the comparison with NP khajastah, for which I can see no justification.

Specimen 2, by the same author as 1. Two verses to Autumn.

Ārū khazānī zārd bāmam wīnā Kafta bī na līw i tāf gūl mīnā. Aksash dīār bī na gūlāw i tāf Chimān min madīām na rūī jām i sāf.

Translation

Tc-day, of yellow-crested autumn I could see, Fallen on the lip of the torrent pool, a picture.

Its likeness was visible in the pool of the torrent:
Thus could I see it on the surface of the smooth plane.

Notes

Verse 1, line 1.

 $\bar{a}r\bar{u}$. "to-day." Most L dialects use $\bar{\imath}$ for the demonstrative in the words "to-day", "this year", etc. Kur uses its characteristic am. Av \bar{a} , $h\bar{a}$, Phl \bar{e} , S, R, Kan $\bar{a}r\bar{u}$, A, Z aro. The Gūrānī has lost the final consonant of Av raoch and Phl roj, roch. Kur roj, rozh, roch.

khazānī zard bām, "yellow-covered autumn."

-am $w\bar{\imath}n\bar{a}$, "to me visible." $w\bar{\imath}n\bar{a}$ is probably a loan-word from NP $b\bar{\imath}n\bar{a}$, though the initial w is more faithful to the original v- of Av $\sqrt{va\bar{e}n}$, OP \sqrt{vain} .

Line 2.

kafta, "fallen." Part. past of kaftin, which is common to Kur and Gūrānī. Where NP, following Phl, has adopted the particle \bar{o} with the significance "down", plus \sqrt{fat} , pat

"fall", Kur has taken a prefixial k- with the same root. Possibly Gūrānī has borrowed it from Kur.

 $b\bar{\imath}$. 3rd pers. sing. pret. ind. of infin. $b\bar{\imath}an$, "to be." Kur inf. $b\bar{\imath}n$. The form $b\bar{\imath}an$ is common to all the non-Kur languages, Kan, L, Lk, R, Z, GuT, $\sqrt{b\bar{\imath}}$.

na, "on, by, at." Common to all Gūrānī and some L dialects. A connexion is suggested with the Av ni-, OP niya-, "down," used in connexion with verbs. Kur la.

līw, "lip." Kur, GuT, R, A, līw, S lew, NP lab.

 $t\bar{a}f$, "torrent, spate." Cf. Phl $top\bar{a}nik$, "violent, strong." A, R tof, Kur $l\bar{a}f$.

gūl, "a pool." A word commonly used in all L, Gūrānī, and South Kur. Apparently a loan-word from Turkish geul. mīnā, "a likeness," from √man, "remain, resemble." Parallel to NP mānand.

Verse 2, line 1.

aksash, aks-ash, "its likeness." Aks is an Arabic loanword through NP. Ash is used by all Lur and NP dialects, as well as by NP. It does not exist in Kur. The consistent use of enclitic -ash is one of the features of Gūrānī which lead to its classification with, and as relation of, NP, as opposed to connexion with Kur, whose independence of NP and its allies becomes increasingly evident on close study. In this case the adherence to OP -shaiy, -sh, by NP and allied languages is little more faithful in form to origin than the Kur $-\bar{\imath}$, $-\bar{e}$ to the Av $-h\bar{\imath}$, $-h\bar{a}$.

 $d\bar{\imath}d\bar{\imath}$, "visible." NP $d\bar{\imath}d\bar{a}r$.

 $g\bar{u}l\bar{a}w$, $g\bar{u}l\bar{a}w$. Water lying in a hollow. See $g\bar{u}l$ above.

Line 2.

chimān, "thus." Cf. NP chinān. Kur has no similar word.

 $mad\bar{\imath}am$. 1st pers. sing. ind. past imper. from \sqrt{di} , "see." NP $m\bar{\imath}d\bar{\imath}dam$. Gūrānī and L form the imperfect tense by the addition of $-\bar{\imath}u\bar{\imath}$ - to the root and before the enclitic pronominal ending.

 $r\bar{u}\bar{i}~j\bar{a}m~i~s\bar{a}f$, "the face of a smooth plane." NP metaphor borrowed entire.

Specimen 3.—Folio 12 and 13. Muhammad Qulī Sulaimān, date unknown. Six verses to Autumn.

Khazānī bi chākh

Īrū dīm bi cham khazānī bi chākh.

Rangish pai nabī dardīnash dākh Min dar sāt je dil kīshām āir ākh.

Pirsām hai khazān rang i baqum wēna Zarrī dākh i dard i jefā i min pai na.

Sā bidācha paim tū je chi kārī Pēsa rang i sāf i bīdardān dārī.

Wātish hai lēwa i dil i pakhm pāra Min hān i zāmam kaftan na chāra.

Tu māchī bī dard har kas bī dard bū Shā allah chanī garr bi zukhāl gard bū.

Translation

Autumn wounded:

To-day I saw with my eyes Autumn wounded.

It had not its colour, because of its painful scar. I then from my heart heaved a fiery sigh.

I asked: "Oh, Autumn, of hue like logwood dye, Apply to it a little of the pains of my suffering."

Then said he to me: "What, then, art thou? Thou hast a clear colour like that of the care-free."

Ile said: "Oh, Deceiver of the torn-hearted, The blood of my wound it is fallen on my face.

Thou callest care-free whoever hath this ill? Please God! with flames may be be burned to charcoal ash."

Notes

Verse 1, line 1.

chākh, "a wound." An unusual word.

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Line 2.

 $\bar{a}r\bar{u}$. See Specimen 2.

dīm. 1st pers. sing. pret. ind. from infin. dīan, "to see." cham, "eyes." Cf. S, R, Lk cham, Z chim, A cho, Kur chaw, chāf.

Verse 2, line 1.

rangīsh, rangī-sh, "its colour."

 $pai\ nab\overline{\imath}$, "to it" or "on it", "was not". Cf. Av paiti, OP apiy, Phl pat, Kan, GuT, A, Lk pai, Kur $p\overline{e}$.

 $dard\bar{\imath}nash$ $d\bar{a}kh$. An inversion which would be in prose $d\bar{a}kh$ i $dard\bar{\imath}nash$, "its painful wound," the word $d\bar{a}kh$ (NP $d\bar{a}gh$), "a scar," being used in this meaning.

min. 1st pers. pron. NP alone of Aryan languages in Persia and Turkey shows man, all others min, except Kur, which preserves Av azem in the form of az, with dative and accusative min, me; and Caspian Talish dialects, as, az.

dar sāt. Borrowed from NP dar sā'at, "instanter."

 $k\bar{\imath}sh\bar{a}m$. 1st pers. sing. pret. ind. of infin. $k\bar{\imath}sh\bar{a}n$, "to pull, draw, suffer, etc." NP $kash\bar{\imath}dan$, Kan, L, GuT, A, Lk, R $k\bar{\imath}sh\bar{a}n$, Z \sqrt{kish} , Kur $k\bar{e}sh\bar{a}n$.

āir, "fire." Av atār, ātarsh, OP ātar, softened in obsolete NP to ādar. R, Kan, GuT, S āir, A āgir, Z ādir, Kur āgir. ākh. "woe!"

Verse 3, line 1.

pirsām. 1st pers. sing. pret. ind. of infin. pirsān, "to ask." rang i baqam, "the colour of log-wood, or red dye."

wēna, "like." Cf. NP gūnā, Kan, GuT wēna.

pai na, "put on it!" Na is the imperative of $n\bar{\imath}a\bar{n}$, "to place." Cf. NP $nih\bar{a}dan$, GuT, Kan, R, A $n\bar{\imath}a\bar{n}$.

Verse 4, line 1.

 $s\bar{a}$ for NP (Ar) $s\bar{a}$ at in the meaning "then".

biwācha. Equivalent of NP biguft. From infin. wātin, "to speak." Kan, R, L, Lk wātin, Maz bwātin. The first four use the stem wāch- in all tenses except preterite and tenses

formed from it, and the imperative. S uses waj- and Z vaj-, a good preservation of the Av \sqrt{vach} and Phl \sqrt{vaj} . The Kur shows variations of the root in \sqrt{ezh} , bezh, though it uses more generally a number of other roots peculiar to itself. Gūrānī does not appear to possess the gu-, guf- stem of NP from OP \sqrt{gub} .

paim, pai-m, "to me." Pai here is not the same derivative as pai in verse 3, line 1, but is the same as NP bi, cf. Av aiwi, aibī (Gatha), OP abiy becoming Av upa, OP upā with accusative following. In the meaning of "to", pai occurs in Kan, Lk, Kur, A, R.

 $t\bar{u}$ je chi $k\bar{a}r\bar{\imath}$. A parallel of the NP colloquialism Tu chi $k\bar{a}ra$ $\bar{\imath}$? "What art thou?"

Line 2.

 $p\bar{e}sa$, "whitish, white." Cf. Phl $p\bar{e}sch$, NP $p\bar{e}s\bar{\imath}$, $p\bar{e}s$, $p\bar{\imath}s\bar{\imath}$, "leprosy." Parsi $p\bar{\imath}sk$. The rest of the line is as NP. The use of $d\bar{a}r\bar{\imath}$, "thou hast," is for metre's sake; the true $G\bar{u}r\bar{a}n\bar{\imath}$ should be $mad\bar{a}r\bar{\imath}$.

Verse 5, line 1.

wātish, 3rd pers. sing. pret. ind. of infin. wātin as above. The use of the enclitic -ish in this part of the verb is common to Kan, R, Lk, A. Cf. colloquial NP guftash, "he said," not "he said to him".

pakhm pāra, "torn and rent." Pakhm may be a loan-word from Kur; it is in daily use among the Jaf nomads of the frontier.

 $z\bar{a}mam$, $z\bar{a}m$ -am, "my wounds." A, R, Lk, GuT, Kan $z\bar{a}m$, NP zakhm. $Z\bar{a}m$ is also used by the Kurds of the extreme south, but not is a Kurmānji word.

kaftan, 3rd pers. sing. perf. of infin. kaftin, "to fall." kaftan is strictly kafta-an.

The use of -n as part of the verb "to be" is very widely spread all over Persia in dialect. Cf. khuban, "it is good." Kur does not use it. Cf. GuT $b\bar{\imath}n$, "he has been." Kan

han, "it is," R an, "it is," R and A both the han-, as the stem in pres. ind. of "to be" throughout the six persons.

na chāra, "on the face"; chāra = NP chihra.

Verse 6, line 1.

tu māchī, "thou sayest." A and R show the complete form mawāchī, S awajī, GuT mawāzhī. Kan follows Gūrānī. bī dard, "without pain."

bī dard, "with this pain," bi ī dard.

 $b\bar{u}$. In next line also, "may he be." NP $b\bar{a}shad$, buvad. Common to L and Gūrānī. Kur has its own form.

chanī, "with, like, by." Kan, A, chanī. Kur does not use it.

garr, "flames." The word is not generally used in other Gūrānī dialects, nor in Lk. It appears to be a loan-word from Kur.

 $zwkh\bar{u}l$ -gard, "charcoal dust." See note on hardening of gh to gk in previous specimen. Kur does not use this word.

- Specimen 4.—Folio 32. Mulla Tāhir Aorāmānī, date unknown. Fourteen verses on the Basil, explaining how it came by the black marks on its leaves.
 - Tilīw je rēhūn purr shān shīwa Lāf madā bi zulf i kasīwa.
 - 2 Mawātish qatra i qatrān bīzanān Hām rang hām būyī zulf rīzanān.
 - 3 Min wātim, "Rēhān, zaid i sārāī Bi tu chi lāiq lāf bīnāi?"
 - 4 Rēhān wāt, "shart i īma wa tu wa yār, Binīshīmī wa ham jāī bī aghyār.
 - 5 " Rū bi rūm kara chanīw zulf dustit Chanī qiblagāī khās āwāt wustit.
 - 6 " Agar khelāf bar shūm lāf bīnāī Bimālā na rūm rang i sīāī."
 - 7 Ima wa gul i rēhān har dū bo wāna Shīmī, kirdmān sijdaī āstāna.

- 8 Bimāla i dilsūz lālām lāl voēna Pai chandī tāī zulf i tughrāī meshkēna.
- 9 Wātim, "Muruwwatan, Shāī Perī Pāya Bā pakhsh bū na rūt zulf i mishk māya."
- 10 "Dā īma wa rēhān dāwā wa jastimān Bar shū bi rāstī bēn o bastimān."
- 11 Nakird darīkhā hājat kird qabūl War dā bi wardā dasta i zulf i lūl.
- 12 Sā rēhān nāshaī zulfash khās zānā Pai rū sīā ash " Aī Wallāh!" ash wānā
- 13 Zāmen bird wa zīd i sāya i dirakhtān Tā bizānū khāk chūn sīa bakhtān.
- 14 Parī paikīāī lāf wardish nidāmat Rū sīāīsh mand tā rūī qīāmat.

Translation

- 1 A sprig of basil, full of pride and coquetry, Was mocking at the tresses of a personage.
- 2 It said, "Drops of pitch, should they sift [them], Like hue and like smell of her locks would pour down."
- 3 I said, "Basil, thou are desert born, Wherefor art thou fitted for such mockery?"
- 4 The Basil said, "A pact be it that I and thou and the beloved
 - Sit down together in a place with no others.
- 5 "Confront me with the locks of thy beloved, And with the adored exercise thy wish.
- 6 "If my mockery turn out an error Rub on my face the colour of black."
- 7 I and the Basil both to the house Went, and prostrated ourselves on the threshold.
- 8 With heartbreaking cry I wailed like the dumb For a few locks of the musk-scented, curled tresses.

- 9 I said, "'Tis but justice, fairy-footed Queen, Let your musk-endowed locks scatter over your face.
- 10 "Contention hath struck the souls of me and the Basil; Let the truth of our argument come out."
- She tarried not, but granted our request,
 And loosed before her a handful of her curly locks.
- 12 Then the Basil knew the intoxication of her locks, And cried "Ai Wallah!" for its blackened face.
- 13 It took refuge under the shade of the trees Till it should know dust, like the unlucky.
- 14 For the result of its mockery it ate repentance, And its face has remained blackened till the Day of Judgment.

Notes

Verse 1, line 1.

 $til\bar{\imath}w$, indefinite singular of til, "a branch, sprig, shoot." The word does not occur generally in Gūrānī or L, and may be a loan-word from Kur, the southern dialects of which use the word $t\bar{\imath}l$ to signify a shoot, or a low hill-spur. Cf. also North Kur, $til\bar{\imath}$, "a finger." No equivalent in NP.

 $r\bar{c}h\bar{a}n$. The sweet basil, much prized in the mountains for its sweet smell. It is often referred to as $gul\ i\ r\bar{c}h\bar{a}n$, though its flower is insignificant.

purr shān shīwa. The conjunction o, "and," is omitted between the second and third words for metre's sake, a common feature of this type of poetry. Both words are Arabic, in common use in NP.

Line 2.

 $l\bar{a}f$. In NP $l\bar{a}f$ usually means "boasting" simply. In Gūrānī it always means "belittlement, mockery".

 $mad\bar{a}$. 3rd pers. sing. ind. imperf. of infin. $d\bar{a}n$, "to give." $kas\bar{\imath}wa$. Indefinite sing. of kas, "a person."

Verse 2, line 1.

mawātish. 3rd pers. sing. imperf. ind. of wātin, "to say," for note on which see above. Kan, A, R, GuT mawātish.

bīzanān. 3rd pers. pl. pres. subj. from inf. bīzanin, "to sift."

Line 2.

hām. NP ham, "equal, like." The lengthening of the vowel is common to Gūrānī and Kur.

 $r\bar{\imath}zan\bar{a}n$. Same form as $b\bar{\imath}zan\bar{a}n$, from inf. $r\bar{\imath}zanin$, "to pour." The Gürānī does not use the $\sqrt{b\bar{\imath}kh}$ and $\sqrt{r\bar{\imath}kh}$ as in NP.

Verse 3, line 1.

wātin. 1st pers. sing. pret. of infin. wātin, "to say."

zaid i sārā $\bar{\imath}$. Equivalent either to NP zād i sahrā $\bar{\imath}$, "thou art desert born," or zaid i sahrā $\bar{\imath}$, adopting the NP use of zaid in the meaning of "an one". The first interpretation appears more likely. Lk gives zai, R zaid for "born", though the infin. in all cases is $z\bar{a}\bar{\imath}n$. $-\bar{a}\bar{\imath}$ - in all the L and Gūrānī dialects often becomes -ai-; cf. bain for $b\bar{a}\bar{\imath}n$, "come here," main for $m\bar{a}\bar{\imath}n$, "a mare."

 $l\bar{a}f$ $b\bar{\imath}n\bar{a}\bar{\imath}$. The equivalent of NP $l\bar{a}f$ - $zan\bar{\imath}$, in this case meaning traduction. The word $b\bar{\imath}n\bar{a}\bar{\imath}$ is NP used idiomatically.

Verse 4, line 1.

wāt. 3rd pers. sing, pret. of infin. wātin, "to say."

īma, "we." Used for the singular. Common to all Gūrānī, L, and South Kur. Correct Kur am.

binīshīmī. Equiv. of NP binīshīnīm, "let us sit." Gūrānī infin. nīshtin. This is common to all Gūrānī, Lk, and L. Kur uses it also, but never without an adverbial prefix dā or rū. The form -īmī for the plural pronominal enclitic is peculiar to Gūrānī and allied dialects. The mongrel language of Kermanshah uses the form -īmin in this place. Lk also gives -īmā and -īman, R -īma, Maz -īmī.

Line 2.

wa ham. NP $b\bar{a}$ ham, "together." All allied dialects use wa for NP $b\bar{a}$. The use of this phrase is one of the many

links between Gūrānī, and NP. Kur uses biyek, layek, lagal, digal, tgar, etc.

Verse 5, line 1.

 $r\bar{u}$ bi $r\bar{u}m$. A NP phrase, "face to face." This also is used by all allied dialects in common with NP. Kur has a variety of phrases of its own, such as diberyek, laberyek, etc.

kara. Imperative of kirdin, "to do, make." Gūrānī and allied dialects do not use the kun stem of NP. GuT, A, R, Kan, imperative karo. Kur uses stem ka- in place of NP kun and Gūrānī kar-, except in a few northern dialects, which also use stem kar-.

chanīw, and chanī in next line. See previous notes. dustit, for dūstit, "thy friend."

Line 2.

khās, NP khub. This Arabic word is used by all Gūrānī and allied dialects to signify "good, well".

 $\bar{a}w\bar{a}t$, "desire, wish." Verbal noun from infin. wastin, "to wish." As a rule the secondary stem is $w\bar{a}z$ -, used in ind. pres., imperative, and subj. pres. GuT, Kan, $vw\bar{a}z$, Maz (Tālish) $vw\bar{c}$, $vv\bar{a}z$, Kur $vw\bar{c}$, $w\bar{a}z$, and loan-root from NP $vkhw\bar{a}z$, Av and OP vvas, Phl infin. $khv\bar{a}stann$. Lk and L follow NP with $vkhw\bar{a}s$.

wustit. 2nd sing. pers. pret. ind. from infin. wustin, "to throw, scatter, deposit, arrange." The use of the preterite to express the future is a well-known feature of NP and Kur. R, Kan, GuT wus, was, Z wesh, Kur weēzh, kha. The first Kur root and the Gūrānī, etc., invite comparison with Av was, and the Kur wha with Av wah. The only parallel suggested in NP is hashtan, "to leave, let fall, suspend."

Verse 6, line 1.

bar $sh\bar{u}m$, bar $sh\bar{u}$ -m, "should go out-to me." $Sh\bar{u}$ is the equivalent of the NP ravad, from infin. $sh\bar{\iota}an$, "to go," see later.

Line 2.

bimāla. Imp. of infin. mālīn, "to rub." Final -a in imperative is characteristic of all Gūrānī and Kur.

sīāī. NP sīāhī, "blackness."

Verse 7, line 1.

īma. See Verse 4, line 1.

wa. See verse 4, line 2, wa ham.

bo, "to, for." R uses bo, but most allied dialects use wa, NP bi.

 $w\bar{a}na$, "house." The loss of the kh- is conspicuous here. A, R, GuT, Kan $y\bar{a}na$. All apparently from NP $kh\bar{a}na$ or Phl $kh\bar{a}nak$. Z, Maz use variants of kad, kai, etc., the origin of which is obvious. Kur uses $m\bar{a}l$, the word $kh\bar{a}n\bar{u}$ in Kur signifying a house built of stone or brick. It is a loan-word from NP.

Line 2.

 $sh\bar{\imath}m\bar{\imath}$. 1st pers. pl. pret. ind. from infin. $sh\bar{\imath}an$, "to go." Lk, L, GuT $\sqrt{sh\bar{u}}$, $\sqrt{sh\bar{\imath}}$, Maz $\sqrt{sh\bar{u}}$, Tālish $\sqrt{sh\bar{e}}$, Z $sh\bar{e}$, Kur $\sqrt{ch\bar{u}}$. A and R use \sqrt{lua} ; cf. NP \sqrt{ru} , rav.

 $kirdm\bar{a}n$. 1st pers. pl. pret. inf. from infin. kirdin, "to do." The enclitic $-m\bar{a}n$ is as seen in L and Lk. Kermānshāhi uses it indiscriminately with $-\bar{\imath}min$. It is also met with in South Kur.

Verse 8, line 1.

 $l\bar{a}l\bar{a}m$. 1st pers. sing. pret. ind. of infin. $l\bar{a}l\bar{a}in$, "to wail, implore," an onomatopoeic in general use in Gūrānī; cf. South Kur infin. $l\bar{a}l\bar{i}nawa$, "to wail."

Line 2.

tughrāī meshkēna. A very Persian-like metaphor, comparing the locks to the Turkish imperial sign manual of convolute letters.

¹ Nearly all writers on Kurmānjī give the derivation of māl as Ar māl, "property," for which there is no reason. It would be curious at least that Kur, which does not borrow except to fill gaps in the language, should adopt a foreign word for the commonest object of life. The derivation is Av nmāna, Phl. mān.

Verse 9, line 1.

muruwwatan, muruwwat-an. An-, "it is." See specimen 3, verse 5, line 1, kaftan.

Line 2.

 $b\bar{a}$, "Let it be! allow!" Common to all Gūrānī and S. Kur. N.P. $b\bar{a}d$, $b\bar{a}d\bar{a}$

bū, "that it become." From infinitive būan, "to become."
 Common to all Gūrānī and L dialects. Not in Kur.

Verse 10, line 1.

 $d\bar{a}$. 3rd pers. sing. pret. ind. of infin. $D\bar{a}n$, "to strike." Apparently a loan-word from Kur, which, throughout its southern dialects, uses no other word in this meaning.

dāwā, for NP (Ar.) da'wā, "argument." jastimān, "our being."

Line 2.

bar shū. See verse 6, line 1.bēn o bastimān. A borrowed NP idiom.

Verse 11, line 2.

• war $d\bar{a}$. 3rd pers. sing. pret. ind. from infin. war $d\bar{a}n$, "to scatter, loose." Infin. $d\bar{a}n$, "to give." The word war is represented in a few of the Gūrānī dialects and Lk, and is possibly a loan from Kur. The L and Lk word is $n\bar{u}\bar{a}$. War is equivalent to Kur ber, bar, which is no other meaning than "front, breast," from Av vara, Phl bar, "the breast," whereas the meanings "up, on, into," etc., of the better-known NP bar from Av uparō, parō, OP upariy, are not found in Kur. Z also gives $ver d\bar{a}e$.

bi $ward\bar{a}$. For effect the Kur inflexion $-d\bar{a}$ has been borrowed. The phrase means "in front".

Verse 12, line 1.

nāshai. NP na'sha in its colloquial meaning "headiness, intoxication".

 $z\bar{a}n\bar{a}$. 3rd pers. sing, pret. ind. of infin. $z\bar{a}nin$, "to know." It is worthy of notice that this root $\sqrt{z\bar{a}n}$ is common to all the languages and dialects used for purposes of comparison

here, except Maz, of whose dialects $Semn\bar{a}n\bar{\imath}$ alone shows $\sqrt{z\bar{u}n}$. The Caspian dialects of Lenkorān and Tālish also show $\sqrt{z\bar{u}n}$. It is interesting to note that it is supposed that Pahlavi was spoken comparatively recently in Mazānderān (not including Lenkorān and Tālish), and that Phl had changed the Av \sqrt{zan} to \sqrt{dan} .

Line 2.

pai, "for." Common to all Gūrānī, used alternately with $par\bar{\iota}$.

Verse 13, line 1.

zāmen, "refuge." This word appears in R and A in this sense. Probably from Ar. خنا من with a difference in meaning.

 $z\bar{\imath}d$, "under." NP $z\bar{\imath}r$. This change of final r after $\bar{\imath}$ is seen in other instances in Gūrānī. Cf. also Z $sh\bar{\imath}d$ for $sh\bar{\imath}r$. Kur does not share this peculiarity.

bizānū. NP bidānad. Infin. zānin as above.

Verse 14, line 1.

parī, "for, because." NP barāyī. A, R, Lk, Karparī. Not used by Kur.

 $paik\bar{\imath}a\bar{\imath}$, "the result, outcome." A, R, Kan use the word, which is composed of $paik\bar{\imath}$, subsequent, and $\bar{a}\bar{\imath}$, coming.

wardish, 3rd pers. sing. pret. ind. of infin. wārdin, "to eat, suffer," with enclitic -ish. R, A, GuT, Lk, infin. wārdin, Z wārde, Av vhvar, Phl vkhor.

mand. 3rd pers. sing. pret. ind. of infin. mandin, "to remain." Common to all Gūrānī dialects, also L and Z. Av and OP \sqrt{man} .

Specimen 5.—Folio 32. Mahzūnī, a clerk of the Court of Khosrū Khān Wālī of Ardalān, A.D. 1783. A commination on the Basil in continuation of the foregoing.

Raqīb sīā bū

Rūt bi wēna i zulf i qiblim sīā bū.

¹ Semnānī appears to be a stranger among the Maz dialects.

Ghazab je āsmān parīt awrā bū Band bandit bi tīkh je ham jīā bū. Bī gālib i mirda bi sar zinda bāī Kharīk wa kharkāw ārā manda bāī. Khudā tu nakushū parī khalāsī Tā khās khudāī wīt bi hag bishnāsī. Bī tor bēyu pīt tū je nāsāzī Har dam marq i wīt b'āwāt biwāzī. Sā ki tū hijrān i yārān selā bāī $K\bar{a}$ fir i mutlaq, $g\bar{\imath}r$ i bel \bar{a} $b\bar{a}\bar{\imath}$.

Translation

May the envious be blackened! May thy face become black as the locks of my beloved! May wrath from Heaven descend upon thee! May thy stalks be sundered with a blade! With body dead and head alive May thou remain caught and fixed! May God never let thee die for release Till thou hast well recognized thy God to be the Right! In this wise may it come to thee, that thou from thy frowardness Shall ever long for thine own death as a desire! Whenever thou thinkest well to separate lovers, Absolute Infidel! may thou be caught in misfortune!

Notes

Verse 1, line 1.

raqīb, for Ar raghīb, in its meaning of "envious, covetous". $b\bar{u}$. NP bishavad; see previous notes.

Line 2.

rūt, rū-t, "thy face." wēna. See previous notes.

Verse 2, line 1.

parīt, parī-t, "for thee." For note on parī, see previous notes.

 $awr\bar{a}$, "down, descending." A variant of $w\bar{a}r\bar{a}$, also seen as $w\bar{a}l\bar{a}$. R, A, Kan, Lk $w\bar{a}r$, $w\bar{a}r\bar{a}$, Kur $khw\bar{a}r$, NP $khw\bar{a}r$ in a different meaning.

 $t\bar{\imath}kh$. NP $t\bar{\imath}qh$. All allied dialects of Güranī give $t\bar{\imath}kh$. $j\bar{\imath}a$. NP $jid\bar{\imath}a$. All Güranī, L, and Kur $j\bar{\imath}a$, "separate."

Verse 3, line 1.

 $b\bar{a}\bar{\imath}$. NP $b\bar{a}sh\bar{\imath}$, from infin. $b\bar{\imath}an$, "to be." This is characteristic of L, Lk, A, R, Kan, and GuT, also Kermānshāh mongrel dialect. Not Kur.

kharīk, "caught, involved." A loan-word from Kur. Most of the Gūrēnī dialects use it. L, Lk use mutilations of Ar mashghāl.

kharkāw. This is the intensive form of kharīk. Kharīk wa kharkāw is a phrase borrowed from Kur, meaning "utterly involved", "inextricably caught or stuck".

 $\bar{a}r\bar{a}$, "arranged, fixed." Cf. NP $\bar{a}r\bar{a}stan$, with a slightly different modern meaning.

Verse 4, line 1.

 $nakush\bar{u}$, "may he not kill." The line reflects upon the duration of the torment prayed for in the previous line. The enclitic $-\bar{u}$ in 3rd pers. sing. is common to all Gūrānī and Lk, but is not used in Kur. It is also seen in the quatrains of Bābā Tāhir of Hamadan.

Line 2.

wīt, "thyself." This is one of the characteristic Gūrānī words. The reflexive pronoun throughout its six persons is w- in place of NP khud, Kur kho, Kan, R, A, GuT, L w-, Z kho, Av hvā, khvā, OP uva, Phl khud.

Verse 5, line 1.

 $b\bar{e}yu$. NP bishuvad, "may it become," for $bib\bar{u}$. It is characteristic of Gūrānī and allies. Kur $bib\bar{c}$, $b\bar{e}$.

pīt, "to thee," pai-t. Common to all Gūrānī, also Kermānshāhī, Lk, L.

 $\bar{a}w\bar{a}t$. See Specimen 4, Verse 5, line 2.

 $biw\bar{a}z\bar{\imath}$. NP $bikhw\bar{a}h\bar{\imath}$. Characteristic absence of kh- from infin. wastin, "to wish." All Gūrānī dialects show variations of \sqrt{wa} and $\sqrt{wa}z$, in common with Kur. \sqrt{wa} , $\sqrt{wa}z$, $\sqrt{we}s$. The initial kh- of NP is seen in Phl $\sqrt{khv\bar{a}s}$, cf. L √khās, and Kermānshāhī √twās. Av vas, OP which Kur, Gūrānī, and Z appear to have perpetuated regardless of Phl.

Verse 6, line 1.

selā, for Ar salāh, in the meaning "desiring, seeing good". Specimen 6.—Folio 33, by Mahzūnī, 6 couplets.

> Sāī sahand ī sang Subhdam washan sāī sahand i sang. Bilā shartī raqīb i bad rang Naganu na wandit sad hazār farsang. Chanī dūst i wīt binīshī bi shād Werda i sālān bāwarī bi yād. Ga nīāz je tū gā nāz je dilbar Tū pai ū sūzān ū je tu batar. Har tā ki umrit yāwū bi anjām $Na \ s\bar{a}\bar{\imath} \ o \ sangd\bar{\alpha} \ wa \ y\bar{a}r\bar{\imath} \ ay\bar{a}m.$ Īdan sarmāya i īdinyā i fānī Mā bagā pūchan ar chīw mazānī.

Translation

In the shade of a beautiful rock, Early morning is pleasant in the shade of a beautiful rock. Conditionally that the evil-hued envier Approach thee not within ten thousand farsangs. With thine own lover to sit in happiness The tales of the years to bring to mind. Sometime advances from thee, then coyness from the beloved, Thou burning for her, and she yet worse than thee. And so till thy life arrive at its end,

In the shade of the pleasant rock with the beloved (spending thy days).

This is it—the capital of the transient world; All else is hollow, didst thou but know.

Notes

Verse 1, line 1.

 $s\bar{a}\bar{\imath}$, $s\bar{a}i$ -i, "the shade of."

sahand. A loan-word from Kur, meaning "a place well endowed with trees, water, and coolness". In Kur as here only applied to a pleasant nook or outlook in a hill.

Line 2.

washan, wash-an, "it is pleasant." For an, see previous notes. Wash, with characteristic initial w-, where NP shows khw-, is common to all Gūrānī, also Z.

Verse 2, line 2.

 $nagan\bar{u}$. Cond. "that he arrives not," from infin. gain, "to arrive," a very unusual word in Gūrānī. Cf. Kur gaishtin, "to arrive," not the same theme as NP gashtan, but ga, "a place," $+ \sqrt{sh}$, "go."

na, "to," see previous notes.

wandit, wand-it, "thy neighbourhood." This meaning is quoted on the authority of an Aorāmānī poet at present in Sulaimania, who, however, cannot produce any parallels in other dialects.

Verse 3, line 2.

werda, "the things past." Although this is probably a loan-word from Kur, it is interesting to note the etymology. The Kur $\sqrt{b\bar{u}r}$, "pass over, away," and the NP \sqrt{guzar} , show the different developments in two parallel languages. Av gives $v\bar{\imath}$, "apart," and tar, "across, over." In Phl this has become $v\bar{\imath}dar$, and also, with the characteristic v to g change of Phl, $g\bar{u}dar$. Kur has preserved the Av $v\bar{\imath}$ -tar with erosion, and disappearance of medial d softened from t (one of its commonest features), while NP shows its descent from Phl by adoption of the typical Phl g- for Av v- with $g\bar{u}$ -dar, $g\bar{u}zar$.

 $b\bar{a}war\bar{\imath}$, "that thou may bring." All Gūrānī dialects preserve the full $\sqrt{a}war$ throughout the verb, not using

the abbreviated $\sqrt{a}r$ of NP. Not used in Kur, which has its own $\sqrt{e}n$, $\sqrt{a}n$, $\sqrt{i}n$, $\sqrt{h}\bar{e}n$.

Verse 4, line 1.

 $g\bar{a}$. NP $g\bar{a}h$, "time."

Line 2.

batar, "worse." Cf. Phl vatar.

Verse 5, line 1.

 $y\bar{a}w\bar{u}$. Aorist, infin. $y\bar{a}w\bar{a}n$, "to arrive." Common to R, A, GuT, Kan. Comparison with Av \bar{a} -, $\sqrt{\iota}$ is suggested. sangd \bar{a} . Use of the Kur dative $-d\bar{a}$. $wa\ y\bar{a}r\bar{\imath}$, "with a friend."

wa yari, widi a mei

Verse 6, line 1.

 $\bar{\imath}dan$, "this is." The use of the apparently euphonic -d-between $\bar{\imath}$, "this," and an, "is," is characteristic of Gūrānī and L.

Line 2.

pūchan, "is empty, vain."

ar chīw. NP agarchi, though not used in exactly the same sense. The phrase ar chīw mazānī is idiomatic in Gūrānī. mazānī. 2nd pers. sing. ind. pres. of infin. zānin, "to know."

Specimen 7.—Folio 34. Farrukh Palangānī. Three verses

Maūlām bīqarār Sipī tāfī dīm bī hadd i bī garār.

J'o māh i barza wīsh mawazū wa wār Tan pāra mabū hazārān hazār.

Dīsān je gūldā makhurōshīwa

Chani dakh i ishq majoshiwa.

Translation

My master! Confusion!

I saw a white spate, unlimited and unruled.

From that high moon it threw itself downwards, Becoming body-rent in thousand thousand (pieces). Then, again upheaving in the pool, With the pain of love boiling.

Notes

Verse 1, line 1.

maūlām. This address as an introduction is common to Gūrānī poems, and it is said means little more than the introductory b'ismillah of NP words. In a case such as the present the first line is but the name of the poem, bī qarār, "Unsettlement, Confusion."

Line 2.

 $sip\bar{\imath}$. NP $sip\bar{\imath}d$, $sif\bar{\imath}d$. The -t of Av and -d of Phl have been lost by Gūrānī and Kur alike.

tāf. See Specimen 1.

dīm. 1st pers. sing. pret. ind. of infin. dīan, "to see."

Verse 2, line 1.

j'o, je-o, "from that."

 $w\bar{\imath}sh$, "itself." See previous note on $w\bar{\imath}t$.

mawazū. 3rd pers. sing. pres. ind. of infin. wustin, "to throw, etc." See Specimen 4, verse 5, line 2.

wa, "to."

wār, "down." See Specimen 5, verse 2, line 1.

Line 2.

 $mab\bar{u}$, "it becomes." See previous notes on $b\bar{u}an$. Verse 3. line 1.

 $d\bar{\imath}s\bar{a}n$, "once again." A Kur loan-word, compound of $d\bar{\imath}$, "again," and $s\bar{a}n$, "manner." Gūrānī usually employs $duw\bar{a}ra$, $duj\bar{a}ra$, $d\bar{\imath}tir$, etc.

 $q\bar{u}ld\bar{a}$. Locative of $q\bar{u}l$. Kur inflexion borrowed.

makhurōshīwa. More correctly makhurōshüa, from infin. khurōshin, "to be tumbled, confused." Cf. NP khurūshīdan in a different sense, that of "noise, tumult".

Line 2.

majoshīwa, or majoshüa, from joshīn, "to boil."

The Minor Friars in China

By A. C. MOULE

IN July, 1914, the Journal printed the Latin text, with English translation, of various documents relating to the Minor or Franciscan Friars in China. Of these the most important were three letters written from China and other extracts from a fourteenth century chronicle, which is preserved in the Bibliothèque Nationale at Paris (MS. Latin 5006). On p. 555 of the article referred to I wrote: "Monsieur H. Cordier tells me that he knows of no other copy of the Chronicles, but at the same time is inclined to doubt that the Paris MS. (Latin 5006) is the copy used by Wadding." Wadding, readers may be glad to be reminded, was the author of a great work called Annales Minorum, in which the three letters from China were printed for the first time, and, indeed, for the only time until 1914 from a manuscript All the other Latin texts with which I am acquainted and all the versions are obviously based on Wadding's text. In spite of M. Cordier's opinion I continued to think that it was at least possible that Wadding had copied rather carelessly the MS. which is now at Paris.

It was then a shock to me to learn from Professor Pelliot that the letters in question and the Paris MS. had been dealt with before 1914 by Jerome Golubovich, and, on turning to the latter's work, to find that the actual MS. used by Wadding was still preserved at Rome.

What Golubovich has to say will be found in his Biblioteca Bio-bibliografica della terra santa, etc., tom. ii, 1913, pp. 116–142, which appeared after M. Cordier's new edition of Cathay and the way thither was in print. Very briefly summarized, his opinion is that he can prove that Wadding did not use the Paris MS. Latin 5006—had not, indeed, seen it—" but another codex now almost unknown which is kept in the

private library of the Chigi at Rome." This Chigi MS., which is marked I, vii, 262, is, Golubovich says with repeated emphasis, identical with Wadding's text. After quoting one of the most difficult passages in the second letter of John of Monte Corvino (July, 1914, p. 555), he says: "Tutto questo passo è letteralmente identico nel Waddingo" (p. 140), and again, after dealing with Andrew's letter (July, 1914, pp. 564–567), "identica è nel Wadd." (p. 141). Golubovich devotes pp. 131, 2, 3, 7 to a collation of the Paris MS. with Wadding's text, and then gives a careful summary of the contents of the Chigi MS. with many quotations (pp. 139–141), and of a copy of the same Chronicle dated 1586, which is in the Corsini Library at Rome (p. 142).

Golubovich's reading of the Paris MS. is often different from my own, but after showing the rotographs with which I worked in 1914 to Mr. A. Rogers of the University Library at Cambridge, I am satisfied that there is only one place where the text printed in 1914 need be changed, with possibly one or two other words which are practically illegible. Having had my suspicions of Golubovich's accuracy thus aroused, I naturally wanted to see the Chigi text for myself, and now, through the quite extraordinary kindness of Mr. J. A. Twemlow and the courtesy of the Librarian, rotographs of the necessary pages have been obtained. And the text is so wonderfully different from what Golubovich supposed, that it seems to be well to print it entire. It is as follows:—

MS. CHIGI I, VII, 262, fol. 98ro.1

PRater uero Johannes de ipso ordine minorum de monte coruino Apulie cum litteris, & priuilegijs domini pape in persidam perueniens, & de Taurisio ciuitati in indiam

¹ See Journal for July, 1914, pp. 546-51; Annales Minorum, vol. iii, 1636, pp. 44, 5 (or 2nd ed., vol. vi, pp. 69, 70). In the footnotes the Paris $^{\bullet}$ MS. Latin 5006 is called P., and Wadding W. Except in the second letter, not nearly all the various readings of P. and W. are noted; and when the two agree in word, the spelling of P. is given. I am immensely indebted to Mr. Rogers, who has most kindly taken the trouble to read through and correct my transcript.

pertransiens deinde in regnum Kathay¹ in Gabaliensem vrbem perueniens, imperatorem maximum omnium Tartarorum cum litteris domini pape ad fidem xristi inuitauit, & ab ipso letanter receptus locum ei, & sedem in curia concessit, & predicandi licentiam concessit. Qui multos ibi ad xristum conuertit sicut ir sequenti epistola declarat. Epistola

REuerendis in xristo patribus, & fratribus &cetera. Ego frater Johannes de monte coruino de ordine fratrum minorum recessi de Taurisio ciuitate persidis anno domini 1291, & fui in contrata indie, & in ecclesia sancti Tome mensibus xiij. & ibi baptizaui circa centum personas in diuersis locis. Et sotius uie mee fuit frater Nicolaus de pistorio ordinis fratrum predicatorum qui mortuus est ibi, & sepultus in predicta ecclesia. Et ego ulterius procedens perueni in Kathay regnum imperatoris tartarorum, qui dicitur magnus chan. Jpsum uero imperatorem cum litteris domini pape ad fidem catholicam inuitaui, qui tamen quia nimis inueteratus est in ydolatria non potui reducere. set multa beneficia prestat xristianis. Et ego sum apud eum iam est annus xijus. Nestoriani xristiani quidem titulum preferentes, set a xristiana religione plurimum deuiantes tantum inualuerunt in partibus istis quod non permiserunt quempiam xristianum alterius ritus habere quantumlibet paruum oratorium. nec aliam quam nestorianam puplicare doctrinam. Ad has siquidem terras non aliquis apostolus, uel apostolorum discipulus peruenit Et ideo prefati nestoriani per se uel per alios pecunia corruptos persecutiones mihi grauissimas intulerunt. asserentes quod non essem missus a domino papa. set essem explorator magus, & dementator hominum. Et facto aliquo temporis interuallo produxerunt alios falsos testes dicentes quod alius numptius fuerat missus deferens imperatori maximum thesaurum. & quod ego illum occiderim in india, & abstulerim que portabat. Et durauit

¹ The initial of Kathay is in most cases almost identical with R, and the word ought perhaps to be printed Rathay.

hec machinatio circiter quinque annis. ita quod sepe ad iudicium fui tractus cum mortis ignominia. Tamen per quorundam confexionem deo disponente, Imperator cognouit meam innocentiam, & malitiam emulorum & ipsos cum vxoribus, & liberis exilio relegauit. In hac peregrinatione fui sine confexione annis xi donec ad me uenit frater Arnoldus Alamannus de prouincia colonie nunc est annus secundus. vnam ecclesiam edificaui in ciuitate Cabaliech, vbi est precipua residentia regis, quam ante annos sex compleui. vbi etiam feci campanile, & ibi tres campanas posui. Baptizaui etiam ibidem usque hodie ut extimo circa sex milia personas. Et nisi fuissent supradicte infamationes baptizassem ultra xxx milia, & sum frequenter in baptizando. Jtem successiue emi quatraginta pueros filios paganorum etatis circa .vij, et xj annorum qui nullam adhuc cognoscebant legem, & baptizaui eos, & informaui eos litteris latinis. & ritu nostro scribens eis psalterium cum ymnarijs triginta duo 1 breuiaria scripxi, . . Ex quibus xij pueri iam sciunt officium totum nostrum, & tenent chorum, & edomadas sicut in conuentu, siue sim presens, siue non Et plures ex eis scribunt psalteria, & alia oportuna, & dominus imperator delectatur in cantu eorum. Campanas ad omnes horas pulso & cum conuentu infantium quasi lactentium officium facio. Tamen secundum consuctudinem cantamus quia notatum officium non habemus

[Margin: De magno rege Georgio xristiano:

Ovidam Rex illius regiones Nestoriane secte nomine Georgius de genere illius regis magni qui dictus fuit presbiter Johannes primo anno quo huc veni mihi adhesit. & ab errore ad ueritatem uere fidei conuersus catholice per me minores ordines suscepit. mihique celebranti sacris ²

 $^{^1}$ P.: Item emj successiuc .xl. pueros filios paganorum etatis infra .vij. et .xj. annorum qui nullam adhuc congnoscebant legem. & batticzauj eos & informauj eos litteris latinis & ritu nostro. & scripssi pro eis psalteria cum ymnarijs .xxx. & duo W.: Item enim successiue 150. pueros, filios paganorum ætatis infra 7. & 11. annorum, qui nullam adhuc cognoscebant legem, & baptizaui eos, informaui eos litteris Latinis, & Græcis ritu nostro, & scripsi pro eis psalteria, cum hymnariis 30. & duo

² W. regiis

uestibus indutus ministrauit, ita quod alij nestoriani ipsum de apostate 1 accusauerunt. Tamen ipse magnam sui populi partem ad ueram fidem catholicam adiunxit. & ecclesiam pulcram se cum regiam magnificam construxit ad honorem dei nostri, & domini pape. & nomine meo uoca[n]s ecclesiam romanam. Qui nobilis rex² ante sex annos migrauit ad dominum relicto herede filio in cunabulis, qui nunc est Fratres tamen ipsius regis cum essent annorum perfidi in erroribus omnes quos ipse conuerterat, post regis obitum subuerterunt.3 Et quia ego fui solus non potui recedere a prima ecclesia, & ab imper[at]ore chan. & ad illam ecclesiam que distat per xxx dietas non potui accedere. Tamen si uenerint boni coadiutores spero in deo quod totum poterit reformari. Nam adhuc habeo priuilegium predicti regis defuncti.4

Terum dico quod si non fuissent infamationes supradicte magnus fructus fuisset sequtus, si habuissem duos uel tres sotios coadiutores meos, & forte imperator fuisset baptizatus Tales fratres uenient, si uenire aliqui uolunt qui studeant se in exemplum dare, & non suas finbrias magnificare. De uia notifico quod per terram Chothay canis imperatoris aquilonarium, & securior, 5 ita quod cum numptijs

- ¹ P. W. Apostasia
- ² P. adduxit. Et ecclesiam pulcra[m] secundum Regiam magnificentium construxit, ad honorem dej nostrj sancte trinitatis; & dominj pape. & nomen meum vocans eam ecclesiam Romanam. Qui Rex Georgius W. adduxit, & Ecclesiam pulchram secundum regiam magnificentiam construxit, ad honorem Dei nostri, sanctæ Trinitatis, & Domini Papæ, vocans cam Ecclesiam Romanam. Qui Rex Georgius For nomen meum, words which are very obscure in P., Golubovich reads nominavit.
- ³ To the above 27 words *P*. adds 9 (uerus xpistianus, nouem, Georgij, Nestorij, ad scisma pristinum reducendo), all of which *W*. has copied exactly.
- ⁴ P. W. Et quia ego fuj solus nec potuj recedere ab Jmperatore Chaan ire non potuj ad illam ecclesiam que distat ad .xx. dietas. Tamen si uenerint aliquj boni coadiutores & cooperatores spero . . . Nam . . . Regis Georgij defunctj.
- ⁵ P. Cothay Jmperatoris aquilonarium tartarorum est via breuior & securiorum. W. Gothorum Imperatoris Aquilonarium Tartarorum est via breuior, & securior; The omission of Tartarorum . . . breuior from the text looks like an accident, and leaves the sentence imperfect.

infra quinque uel sex menses poterunt peruenire. Via autem alia est longissima, & periculosissima habens duas nauigationes quarum prima est secundum distantiam inter Achon, & prouinciam prouincie. Alia uero est secundum distantiam inter Achon, & Angeliam, & posset contingere quod in biennio vix perficeret uiam illam, quia prima uia secura non fuit a multo tempore propter guerras Jdeo sunt xij anni quod de curia romana. & de nostra religione rumores, & noua non recepi.2 Jam sunt [fol. 98 vo] duo anni quod venit quidam medicus ciruicus 3 qui de romana curia, & nostro ordine, & statu occidentis populi xristiani istas partes incredibilibus blasfemijs inffecit propter quod multum desidero percipere ueritatem. Rogo fratres ad quos littera hec peruenerit 4 ut ita studeant quod eius continentia possit peruenire ad notitiam domini pape, & cardinalium, & procuratoris nostri ordinis in curia romana. generali ordinis nostri supplico pro antiphonario, & legendis sanctorum graduali, & psalterio cum nota pro exemplari, quia non habeo nisi breuiarium portatile cum lectionibus breuibus, & paruum missale. Si habuero exemplaria pueri predicti scribent. Modo sum in actu edificandi aliam ecclesiam, & 5 diuidendum pueros in pluribus locis. Ego iam senui. & canus factus sum, potius laboribus, et tribulationibus quam etate. sunt 6 enim annorum lviij. Didici conpetenter linguam. & litteras tartarorum 7 que est lingua vsualis tartarorum. & iam trastuli in lingua illa & littera totum nouum testamentum, & psalterium que feci scribi in pulcerrima littera eorum. & teneo, & lego in patenti. & manifesto quasi in testimonium 8 legis xristi. Et tractaui cum supradicto rege

¹ P. Angliam.

² P. W. de nostro ordine & statu occidentis non suscepi noua.

³ P. Cyrugicus lombardus W. chirurgicus Lombardus, The word in the text is hard to read, and may be *ciriuricus* or *ciriacus*.

⁴ or perueniet

⁵ P. W. ad

⁶ P. W. sum

⁷ P. W. Tartaricham

⁸ P. teneo & lego & predico in patenti & manifesto quasi in testimonium W. scribo, & lego, & prædico in patenti manifesto in testimonium

georgio si vixisset totum officium latinum trasferre ut per totam terram suam cantaretur in dominio suo Et eo viuente in ecclesia sua celebrabatur missa ¹. secundum ritum latinum in littera, & lingua illa tam verba canonis quam prefationes. Et filius dicti regis Georgij uocatur Johannes propter nomen meum. de quo spero in domino quod adhuc immitabitur ² uestigia patris sui. Credo secundum visa, & audita quod nullus rex, aut princeps mundi domino chan imperatori omnium tartarorum potest equari ³ in latitudine terre, in multitudine populi & magnitudine diuitiarum. Finis. Datum dicebat littera ipsa in ciuitate cambaliech regni Kathay, anno domini millesimo ij^c.v.⁴ die viij mensis Januarij.

HAs litteras⁵ trasmisit frater Johannes predictus cuidam fratrı predicatori spirituali, & bono viro qui zelo fidei xristiane, & salutis animarum in partibus orientalibus peregrinabatur indicando gentibus, & baptizando. Et iste frater per quosdam mercatores de uenetijs qui a Tartaria redibant trasmisit has litteras in pluribus locis citra mare, & in partibus occidentis fratribus minoribus, & predicatoribus. Et hic frater significauit in suis litteris quod plures fratres predicatores qui litteras grecas tartaricas, & linguas optime didicerant & adi[r]e tartarina parauerunt portantes libros, & calices, & paramenta. Et illi mercatores veneti dederunt predicto fratri predicatori in signum ueritatis huius tabulam descriptam magni chan imper[at]oris. Et fratres predicti ceperunt viam, & peruenerunt usque Gazariam tartarorum aquilonarium, set non potuerunt transire propter guerras, vnde in eadem ciuitati permanserunt predicantes & baptizantes ibidem quousque guerra cessaret

W. celebrabam missam

² P. W. & spero in deo quod ipse imitabitur

³ P. W. Secundum uero audita & uisa credo quod nullus Rex nec princeps in mundo possid equari domino Chaan

⁴ P. W. Data. in ciuitate Cambaliech Regni Katay (W. Catan). anno dominj m°. ccc v°

For this paragraph of the Chronicle compare July, 1914, pp. 551, 2.

E^T dum rumor felix, & gaudio plenus per occidentales ecclesias, & ad ordines fratrum minorum, & alios peruolaret, & fratres quam plurimi incitati dinino spiritu ad predicandum tartaris—arent, frater iohannes uerus dei seruus secundas litteras trasmisit ad vicarios fratrum orientis, ita continentes. Copia littere ¹

REuerendis in xristo patribus fratri + vicario generalis ministri, ordinis fratrum minorum. & vicario magistri ordinis fratrum predicatorum, & fratribus omnibus ordinis 2 utriusque in prouincia persarum manentibus. Frater Johannes de monte coruino de ordine minorum inutilis xristi seruus predicator fidei xristiane, & sancte romane ecclesie. & apostolice sedis numptius salutem, & caritatem in eo qui est uera caritas, & omnium salus.3 Ordo exigit caritatis 4 ut longe, lateque distantes, & maxime qui perigrinantur pro lege xristi cum reuelata facie se inuicem intueri non possint,⁵ saltim verbis & litteris consolentur. Cogitaui uos non sine causa mirari, quod tot annis prouincia tam longinqua consistens 6 nunquam meas litteras recepistis. Set miratus sum non minus 7 quod nunquam nisi anno isto recepi ab aliquo fratre uel amico litteram, nec 8 salutationem, Nec uidetur quod aliquis mei recordatus fuerit,9 & maxime quia audiui ad uos peruenisse rumores 10 quod ego mortuus essem. Nunc autem notifico vobis quod anno preterito in principio

¹ Compare Journal R.A.S., July, 1914, pp. 552-7; Annales Min, tom. iii, pp. 45, 46, 60; 2nd ed., tom. vi, pp. 71, 72, 91.

² P. Reuerendo in xpisto Patri . . ffratrj. ffratrj. vicario . . . Et vicario fratrum & magistri ordinis predicatorum. & fratribus ordinum utriusque. W. Reuerendo in Christo Patri Fratri N. N. Vicario generali Ministro Ordinis Fratrum Minorum, & Vicario fratrum & Magistro Ordinis Prædicatorum, & Fratribus ordinis vtriusque

 $^{^3}$ P. W. fidej sacre xpistiane, legatus & nuntius sedis a postolice Romane . . . salus omnium.

⁴ W. Ordo eximiæ charitatis inuitat,

⁵ P. W. uidere non possunt

⁶ W. consistentes,

⁷ W. Sed & ego miratus sum, ⁸ P. litteram uel W. litteras, vel

⁹ P. W. recordatus fuerit mej.

¹⁰ P. W. quia (W. quando) audiui quod rumores ad uos peruenissent

Januarij per quendam amicum meum 1 qui fuit ex sotijs domini Cothay canis qui uenerunt ad dominum Chan de Kathay, 2 ego misi litteras patri vicario, & fratribus prouincie Gazarie de statu, & conditione mea in paucis verbis.3 in quibus litteris rogaui eundem uicarium quod exempla il!arum uobis trasmicteret.⁴ Et iam mihi constat per bonas personas quod 5 nunc peruenerunt cum numptijs predicti domini chanis cothay ad dominum chanem Kathay o quod mee littere peruenerunt, & quod ille idem numptius qui portauit litteras meas postmodum de Sara uenit 7 Taurisium propter quod de factis, & contentis in illis litteris 8 cogitaui non fore necesse 9 iterato scriberc. Et primum est de persecutione nestorianorum. Secundum de ecclesia, & domibus completis vbi picture facte sunt 10 ueteris, & noui testamenti. Et ad doctrinam rudium scripta sunt litteris persicis tarsicis, & latinis 11 vt omnes lingue legere ualeant, & inteligeren ationes diuerse.¹² Tertium est quod ex pueris nutritis & baptizatis ¹³ aliqui migrauerunt ad dominum Quartum est quod a tempore quo fui in tartaria in Kathay¹⁴ baptizaui iij millia.¹⁵

¹ P W. nostrum

² W. Kathan Chamis, qui venerat ad eundem Dominum Chamem,

³ W. mea, paucis verbis exaratas,

⁴ P. transmitterent [?].

 $^{^{\}circ}$ P_{\circ} iam mini per bonas personas que W_{\circ} iam intellexi per aliquas personas, que

⁶ P. omit chanis; read de Cathay. W. Domini de Kathan ad Dominum Chanem.

⁷ P. W. Sara ciuitate uenit (W. vencrit)

⁸ W. omit htteris

⁹ P. W. non facere mentionem nec

 $^{^{10}}$ P. W. vj (W Sex) picturas feci fieri—It seems to be quite possible that ubi is the true reading. Six is an inadequate number, and no number is named by the Pope (cf. JRAS., July, 1914, p. 560, quod ecclesias construverit. & picturas noui et ueteris testamenti in eis depingi fecerit; and below p. 93. In qua... ystorie noui, & ueteris testamenti ad doctrinam rudium depingi). This, of course, assumes the possibility that Chigi is independent of P.

 $^{^{11}}$ P. W. testamenti ad doctrinam rudium. & scripta (W. sculpta) sunt litteris latinus. Tursicis (W. & Tarsicis). & persicis

 $^{^{12}}$ P. W. omit & . . . diuerse. 13 P. W. pueris quos emj & battizauj

¹⁴ W. omit in Kathay 15 P. plura milia W. vltra quinque millia

Jn isto autem anno m.1 iijc. vo ego incepi unum 2 alium locum nouum coram hostio domini chanis. & inter curiam, & locum tantum³ via sola est distans per iactum lapidis a porta domini chanis. dominus petrutius de lucagango noster mercator fidelis qui fuit meus sotius de Taurisio emit 4 terram pro loco quem dico,5 Et debit mihi amore 6 dei, & diuina gratia operante, quia in imperio domini canis non posset haberi locus utilior, & congruentior pro sancta ecclesia 7 catholica construenda in principio agusti locum accepi, & 8 usque ad festum Sancti Francisci fuit completus cum muro in circuitu, & officinis, & 9 oratorio qui 10 est capax ce personarum. Set propter yemem ecclesiam perficere non Set habeo ligna congregata in domo. & per misericordiam dei, perficere intendo¹¹ in estate. Dico uobis quod mirum quoddam uisum est omnibus aduenientibus de Custate,12 & aliunde quia non habebant adhuc rumores ex hoc, & uidentes locum¹³ de nouo factum, & crucem rubeam desuper in sublimi positam.

E^T nos in oratorio nostro secundum vsum officium cantamus sollempniter. quia notas non habemus.¹⁴ Dominus kanis in camera sua vbi dormit¹⁵ potest audire uoces nostras. Et hoc factum mirabile diuulgatum est longe, lateque.¹⁶ & pro magno erit, sicut disponet ¹⁷ diuina clementia. A prima

¹ P. W. add domini ² W. omit unum ³ P. W. nostrum

⁵ P. W. dixi ⁶ W. pro amore

⁸ P. W. add assistentibus benefactoribus & iuuantibus

⁴ P. W. Dominus Petrus de lucalongo (W. Lucolongo) fidelis xpistianus & magnus mercator qui fuit sotius meus de thaurisio ipse emit

 $^{^7}$ P. W. quia (W. puto quod) utilior & cogmentior locus haberi non posset (W. possit) in toto imperio dominj Chanis pro ecclesia

⁹ P. & domibus officinis planis. & W. & domibus, officinis, plateis &

¹⁰ P. W. quod ¹¹ P. W. perficiam ¹² P. W. ciuitate

¹³ W. qui adhuc non audierunt quidpiam de hoc : videntes enim locum

¹⁴ W. vsum (quia notas adhuc non habemus) officium cantantes solemniter amplius admirati sunt. Quando cantamus:

¹⁵ P. W. omit vbi dormit

¹⁶ P. W. mirabile factum longe lateque diuulgatum est inter gentes.

¹⁷ P. W. add & adimplebit

uero 1 ecclesia, & loca nostro usque ad istam 2 secundam 3 sunt duo miliaria & dimidium, & pueros diuisi in partem. partem⁵ in prima, & partem in secunda constitui. & faciunt officium per se ipsos. Set ego sicut capellanus per edomadas celebro in utraque 7

TE regionibus orientalibus 8 uobis significo, & precipue de imperio domini kanis quod non eo maior in mundo Et ego habeo in curia 10 locum, & viamordinariam sedend i, & intrandi 11 sicut legatus domini pape. & me habet 12 super omnes alios prelatos quocunque nomine censeantur. licet predictus 13 dominus kam audierit multa magna de curia romana, & statu latinorum, desiderat tamen multum uidere numptios uenientes de partibus illis. Jn partibus istis 14 sunt multe secte 15 ydolatrarum 16 diuersa credentium. igitur 17 multi religiosi de diursis sectis, diuersos habitus habentes, sunt 18 multo 19 maioris autoritatis 20 [fol. 99ro] & observantie 21 quam sint 22 religiosi latini;

TE india maiorem partem ego uidi [?] & quesiui de alijs partibus indie. Et esset magnus profectus predicare eis 23 si fratres venirent. Set non essent mictendi nisi viri solidissimi. Nam regiones sunt pulcerrime plene aromatibus, & lapidibus pretiosis. Et fertiles.24 set de nostris fructibus 25 parum habent. Et propter temperiem, & calorem quasi

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<sup>2</sup> P. W. ecclesiam
<sup>1</sup> P. W. omit uero
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11 P. W. intrandi & Sedendi

15 P. septe and so in all cases

¹³ P. W. Et licet ipse

³ P. W. add quam edificauj postca

⁴ P add intra ciuitatem, que multum est magna. W. add intra ciuitatem, quæ valdè magna est.

⁸ W. omit & ⁵ P. W. diuisi & posuj partem

⁷ P. add quia puerj non sunt Sacerdotes. and rubric de magno imperio tartarorum. W. add quia inter hos pueros non sunt Sacerdotes.

⁸ P. orientalium ⁹ P. sit ej maior W. sit eo maius

¹⁰ P. W. add sua

¹² P. W. honorat me

¹⁴ P. W. istis partibus

¹⁸ P. W. & sunt

¹⁶ W. idololatrarum 17 P. W. et sunt 19 W. omit multo

²⁰ P. W. austeritatis. The text has & observantie, like a catch-word at the foot of the page.

²¹ W. abstinentiæ 22 P. W. omit sint 23 P W. add fidem xpisti

²¹ P. W. omit Et fertiles.

²⁵ P. W. fructibus nostris

continuum nudi, & discalciati incedunt, & propterea artibus, & artificijs non indigent. Ego baptizaui ibi circa c. personas Jbi semper est estas, & nunquam hiems.¹ Jtem dicit dictus frater Johannes in quadam sua epistola quod numptij 2 uenerunt sibi ex ethiopia rogantes amore dei ex parte illorum a quibus missi erant ut ibi ad predicandum iret uel micteret. Nam postquam B. matheus ibi fuit & discipuli eius propter hostiles incursus populi consumti, & dispersi sunt. & sic defecit ecclesia fidelium. Et qui remanserant predicatores non habuerunt qui cos instruerent Et quia multum desiderant redire ad fidem xristi quam antiqui eorum tenuerunt, omnes conuerterentur si predicatores irent [?] de romana ecclesia qui eos docerent. Et dicit in eadem epistola quod post festum omnium sanctorum baptizauit ecce. personas. quia ipse audiuit quod plures fratres vtriusque ordinis ad persas, & ad Gazariam accesserant ortatur eos ad predicandum feruenter fidem. Data in chambalieth ciuitate uetere Katay anno domini. 1306 in dominica quinquagesime 3

- 1 P. W. propter magnam temperantiam & caliditatem aeris & regionis nudi uadunt modico coopertorio (W. medio corpore) uerenda cooperientes. Et propterea artibus nostris sartorum & cordonum. & artifitijs non indigent. Jbj (W. quibus) est semper estas & nunquam hyemps Battizauj ibj circa centum personas. Wadding adds (after personas) &c. $Deest\ finis.$ Alia dabimus huius argumenti anno 1307. quo creatus est Archiepiscopus.
- 2 P. In cadem epistola dicit ipse frater Johannes, quod sollempnes nuntij W. Vltra ca quæ scripsit anno superiori Fr. Joannes à Monte Coruino (inquit B. Odoricus) hoc anno narrat in alia à se scripta Epistola, quod solemnes Nuncij
- ³ P. W. venerunt ad eum de ethyopia (W. quadam parte Æthiopiæ), rogantes ut illue pergeret ad predicandum uel mitteret predicatores bonos. Quia a tempore Beati Mathej euangeliste & discipulorum eius, predicatores non habuerunt qui cos instruerent in fide xpisti. & multum dessiderant ad ueram xpisti fidem peruenire. Et si fratres ibj (W. illue) mitterentur omnes conuerterentur, ad xpistum. & fierent ueri xpistianj. Nam sunt plurimj in oriente (W. ciuitate) qui sollo nomine cristiani dicumtur. & in (W. omit in) xpistum credunt. Set de scripturis & sanctorum (W. sanctis) doctrinis aliud nesciunt (W. non sciunt) simpliciter uiuentes cum non habeant predicatores & doctores. Item dicit (W. dixit) ffrater Johannes quod post festum omnium sanctorum battizanit .eccc. (W. quadrigentas) personas. & quia (W. quod) ipse audiuit quod plures fratres utriusque ordinis ad persas & ad (W. omit ad) Gaczariam accesserunt ortatur (W. hortantes) cos ad predicandum feruenter fidem dominj nostri Jhsuxpisti. & ad

The problem of these last sentences is perplexing. Yule, who seems to have used no text but Wadding's second edition, was sure that the passage from Item dicit dictus frater to the end was really the end of the second letter, and his view is, of course, confirmed by P., which, without any break, introduces the passage with "Brother John himself says in the same letter". That Wadding should have closed the first part of this second letter with "The end is missing" makes it, at first sight, unlikely that he had seen or used P.; but he may mean no more than that the actual text of the letter after that point is lost; and when it suits him, fifteen pages later, to introduce the substance of the lost sentences as reported by P., he does so with the words: "Besides what Brother John wrote the year before [viz. 1305], he tells this year [viz. 1306] in another letter which he wrote that . . . ,"1 and he then proceeds to copy P. very nearly, both in the letter (p. 94, note 3) and in the paragraphs which follow it (p. 109 below).

In the Chigi text this passage follows the first part of the letter without even the break of a new paragraph (as in P.), beginning with "Likewise the said Brother John says in a certain letter of his", words which leave us in doubt whether the scribe thought it belonged to the same letter or not. The substance of the sentences which follow is the same as in P., but the words, except in two sentences, are very different. It looks as if the writer had copied, or perhaps had made for himself a summary of the last sentences different from that in P., or had tried to reproduce P. just here from memory. The Chigi text has 131 words, P. 153, W. 167; or, omitting the introductory words before quod, the numbers are Chigi 122, P. 146, W. 147. This one passage is sufficient

faciendum fructum animarum. Data dicebat littera. ipsa. in Cambalicch ciuitate regnj Katay (W. Kathag). Anno dominj .m°. cccvj°. (W. 1306) in dominica quinquagesime. mensis februarii.

¹ The italic type, which makes these words look like an actual quotation from the Chronicle, is only found in the second edition of the *Annales*, and was not used by Wadding himself.

to show that Wadding did not copy this Chigi text exactly, without reference to P., and it is just this passage that Golubovich was misled into saying was "literally identical in Wadding". It is perhaps now impossible to find out the reason why these last sentences of the letter were reported in indirect speech, instead of being copied, in full or with omissions, from the original, and why each transcriber in turn has introduced them with a different phrase; and it is useless to guess.

The text proceeds:—1

RT cum predicte littere in italiam apportate corda omnium fratrum, & fidelium laycorum ad zelum fidei cum letitia excitarent, Seruus dei fidelis de Tolentino cum sotijs rediens a tartaria cum predictis litteris ad curiam domini pape Clementis, ultra montes accessit. Et dominus frater Johannes de murro episcopus cardinalis de ordine minorum, cum gaudio fratrem Tomam recipiens ad dominum papam Clementem, & ad cardinales introduxit Et quia ipse frater Tomas feruebat spiritu dei, & facundissimus erat sermone scripture omnia ista noua dissertissime explicauit, rogans ut fauorem, & auxilium in tam magno opere comodaret Et dominus papa clemens & omnes cardinales repleti letitia celebrantes consistorium generali ministro commiserunt ut vij. bonos fratres minores eligeret qui episcopi consecrarentur. Et cum priuilegiis suis copiosi ad indiam pertransirent. fratrem iohannem presulatu dignissimum archiepiscopum consecrarent, & ita factum est

N Am electi sunt vij. Scilicet frater Guilielmus Gallicus. frater Nicolaus de Apulea qui fuerat minister in prouincia sancti francisci. Frater Andreas de Guidonis de perusio lector frater peregrinus de castello, & alij tres fratres episcopi per sanctam obedientiam domini pape & generalis ministri ad tartariam missi fuerunt. Et per dei gratiam peruenientes ipsum fratrem Johannem archiepiscopum

¹ Fol. 99 r°. Compare Journal R.A.S., July, 1914, pp. 557-9; Ann. Min., vol. iii, p. 60.

consecrauerunt Que autem in priuilegijs continebantur infra describuntur.

[margin: Bulla 1 dominus papa clemens ad dominum fratrem Johannem archiepiscopum

CLemens episcopus seruus seruorum dei dilecto filio fratri Johanni de monte coruino ordinis fratrum minorum, per nos in Archiepiscopum cambaliensem electo salutem & apostolicam benedictionem. Prouidentiam summi, & eterni regis regnantis in celum qui pro dispositione temporum celestia pariter, & terrena recti iudicij censura disponit in suppreme speculationis prehemenentia presidentes, & si multis, & arduis que in apostolicum romane sedis aluum undique confluunt quasi torrens pregrauemur negotijs, curis excitemur innumeris, & agitationibus pluribus distrahamur, Jd tantum inter cetera desideria nostra feruenter appetimus, uotis feruentius affectamus in missarum sollemnijs incessanter a domino petimus. & ad hoc operose. sollicitudinis studium diligentius impertimur, vt vbicumque terrarum fides catolica vigeat. cunctis mortalibus xristi sanguine pretioso redemptis, celestis, gratie splendor inradiet & salus proueniat animarum, Quatenus & ipsi astuti nequitia primeui seductoris elisa, qui semper circuit, ut offendat, Eterne beatitudinis gloriam, quam humanus non sufficit capere intellectus quamque diligentibus se celorum dominus pollicetur in suauitatis dulcedine perfruantur. Cuius quippe salutis affectande comoditas ex operibus fidei orthodose producitur. cum sacre scripture tesstatur eulogium nullus deo qui absque fidei interuentione non colitur, placere ualeat sine fide. hec est igitur sacra fides que hostem de arce mentis expellit. que corda purificat. (& sue lucis radio tenebras infidelitatis expurgat, hec est uirtutum omnium fundamentum, hec est stella matutina solem justitie, inteligentie que preueniens. per eam dies oritur gratie, quam dies glorie subsequetur. Sane nuper ad notitiam dicte sedis fide digna relatione

Compare Journal R.A.S., July, 1914, pp. 559, 560, 564, 588, note.
JRAS, JANUARY 1921.
7

perducta est quod tu olim zelo ortodoxe fidei caritatis accensus de mandato sedis apostolice eiusdem ex premisso consensu, ac ordinis tui generalis ministri licentia speciali. ut lucrifaceres animas infidelium deo. Ad ipsos 1 infidelium partium orientalium te personaliter trastulisti. & in terris domini Tartarorum quam plures infidelium per lauacrum sacri baptismatis ad ipsam fidem xristi fauente gratia tibi spiritus sancti reduxisti fideliter, & actente. Et deinde ad superiores partes quam [?] principis magni regis tartarorum perueniens post multas, & uarias persecutiones, & insidias, & iniurias tibi per nestorianos heretecos inrogatas, & non nullas falsitates impositas, ac tribulationum concussiones iniurias [?], tu tanguam fidelis xristi atheleta, & fortissimus propugnator faciente. illo fidem cuius imperio reges regnant, & principes dominantur in magnam dicti magni regis gratiam ob amorem dicte fidei ueritatem, comperta merito deuenisti. Sicque dextra domini te cum miram agente & dirigente salubriter actus tuos quandam ecclesiam in honorem dei, & catholice fidei in ciuitate Cabalech [fol. 99 vo] vbi magna, & honorabili 2 regni dicti magni regis de uoluntate eiusdem regis construi procurasti In qua erecto campanili, & campanis positis in eadem ystorie noui, & ueteris testamenti ad doctrinam rudium depingi faciens, conuentum puerorum quos in eorum pueritia de elimosinis a fidelibus tibi irrogatis emeras, & per baptismatis sacramentum fidelibus agregaueras vnitati, quosque in lingua latina, & literarum latinarum doctrina per te sufficienter edoctos in ecclesiastico officio iuxta. romane ecclesie instutita competenter & laudabiliter instruxisti, & promouente domino salubriter ordinasti Qui quidem fratres siue clerici diuina eis subministrante gratia in observantia mandatorum dei feruenter intenti, laudes deo referunt in ipsa ecclesia. hymnumque de canticis syon in terra aliena resonant, & faciunt resonare Ac tamen tu. quam ipsa nonnulla in illis partibus exercetis opera pietatis.

¹ P. ipsas Note that both MSS. read partium

² Perhaps read honorabilis sedes

& caritatis que fidem augent. & magnum promouent fructum, & comodum animarum. Nos uero quos zelus salutis animarum excitat, ad hoc tam pium sicut inceptum negotium salubriter promouendum ad premissa tibi[?] sancte sedis oppiniones merita circumspectionis apostolic- aciem extendentes, & considerantes actentius quod in predictis partibus ponendus est angelus qui amictus sit nube scripture uidelicet prophetarum irim gestet in capite .s. sancti spiritus donum habens per misticum intellectum, omnes conuincat adversarios ueritatis, & confutet. librum que apertum tenens in manibus, tanquam scriba doctus in regno celorum commissos sibi populos erudiat ad salutem. Et quod per hec alia tui ministerij pia studia que inspirante deo circa incrementa fidei non sine magnis laboribus, & detractionibus, ac turbarum concussionibus fideliter, & assidue operaris in eisdem partibus ammotis ex toto perniciosis erroribus in ipsis partibus producentur hereses. scismata euellantur. & magna qui ymo permaxima dicto magno regi, & regno eius bona prouenient, & plurima optata succedent, vt gloria ipsius fidei ortodoxe sicut speramus tanta ibidem potentiori virtute uallabitur, quanto predictus rex ad laudem diuini nominis & regnum eius predictum feliciori decorabitur ueritate. Te ordinem fratrum minorum profexum quem de litterarum scientia, religionis observantia, vite munditia, honestate morum, & aliarum uirtutum donis testimonia fide digna commendant Jn predicta ciuitate cambaliensi de fratrum nostrorum consilio, & apostolice potestatis plenitudine Archiepiscopum ordinamus & preficimus in pastorem. Curam, & solicitudinem animarum existentium in partibus supradictis, ac omnibus alijs que subduntur dominio tartarorum tibi plenariam commictentes. Tibique exercendi omnia que ad iura archiepiscopalia spectare noscuntur, prout permictunt canonice sanciones. Nec non tuis successoribus, Archiepiscopis Caballensibus qui erunt pro tempore vtendi omnibus, & singulis gratijs, & concessioni]bus quas pridem per litteras nostras de ordine fratrum minorum tuo in terras saracenorum, paganorum, ac aliorum infidelium

proficiscentibus autoritate apostolica duximus indulgendas. Eandem autoritatem concedentes tibi plenam, & liberam potestatem in illo qui dat gratias, & largitur premia. Confidentes per tue prouidentie studium, & prouidentie operationis exercitium quod commissus tibi populus suorum errorum tenebras profugabit. & ad xristum dominum viuum, & saluatorem suum sua corda perfecte conuertet. & conuersus preseruabitur a noxijs, & optate prosperitatis spiritualiter, & temporaliter perficiet incrementis. Suscipe igitur incrementer (sic) iugum domini. & suaui eius honeri colla submicte. ac sic tue sollicitudini commissam curam predictam exequi studeas diligenter, ut per hec eterne felicitatis premia cum electis accipere merearis, datum &c. Alia Bulla

[Margin: Aliud priuilegium ad fratrem Johannem

CLemens episcopus seruus seruorum dei. dilecto filio. Fratri Johanni &cetera. Volentes itaque personam tuam prosequi prerogatiua fauoris, & gratie spiritualis, tibi principaliter autoritate concedimus, vt quiuis ex fratribus dicti ordinis per quem per nos autoritate apostolica episcopos ordinatos, & pro maiori animarum salute in adiutorium huius tibi commisse sollicitudinis per nos specialiter deputatos ad te principaliter [?] mictimus asscitis sibi duobus uel tribus alijs ex dictis episcopis, uel eorum successoribus tibi consecrationis munus uice nostra ualeat impertiri: Quicumque post huius consecrationis munus persone tue impensum pallium in signum videlicet pontificalis officii pro te a nobis, & in ea que decuit instantia posculatus, & de corpore B. petri sumtum quod tibi per eosdem episcopos destinamus Jniungentes eis tenore presentium ut id fideliter faciant, & assignare procurent sub forma quam sub bulla nostra mictimus interclusam. Recepturi a te postmodum nostro, & ecclesie romane nomine sub forma quam sub eadem bulla dirigimus fidelitatis debite Formam autem iuramenti quod te prestare iuramentum. contigerit de uerbo ad uerbum nobis per tuas litteras tuo sigillo ligatas idem episcopus qui tibi munus consecrationis impertietur huius, & pallium assignabit prefatum per proprium

numptium mictere non preponat. Tu uero predicto pallio illis diebus utaris, quibus tibi de iure uti licebit. Vt igitur signum non discrepet a signato, set quod geris exterius serues in mente discretionem tuam monemus, & ortamur actente, per apostolica tibi scripta mandantes quatenus humilitatem, & iustitiam dante domino, qui dat premia, & munera elargitur obseruare studeas & suum seruent & promoueant seruitorem. Datum &c.¹ Alia Bulla [Margin: aliud priuilegium quod frater Johannes possit episcopos consecrare.

CLemens episcopus, seruus seruorum dei. Dilecto filio fratri Johanni &c Quod si plures quam dictos sex episcopos ad tam pium, & salubre opus necessarios fore cognoueris, Tu alias personas uita scientia, & etate ydoneas ubi, & quando expedierit uice nostra, & nomine ipsos episcopos consecres, ordines, & preficias in pastores eis curam animarum, & solicitudinem commissi sibi populi plenarie commictendo. ac ipsis preter eos qui de mandato nostro iam consecrati sunt consecrationis munus impendas. ascitis duobus uel tribus episcopis iuxta consuetum, & necessarium in hac parte. Ac omnia alia, & singula facias que in his fuerint oportuna. Sic te in omnibus habiturus, quod post diem retributionis premium, nostram, & dicte sedis gratiam vberius consequi merearis. Datum &cetera

¹ These two Bulls are alluded to in what is, perhaps, the earliest printed reference to John. In a list of cases where the pall has been sent " to the ends of the earth", John Magnus writes in his history of the Church of Upsal: CLEMENS V. anno 1305. fecit fratrem loannem de monte Caluino, ordinis Minorum, existentem in dominio Tartarorum, Archiepiscopum Cambalnensem, fecitque consecrari in curia IX. fratres eiusdem ordinis in Episcopos, quos misit ad partes illas Suffraganeos, & in auxilium ipsius Archiepiscopi, missum est sibi palleum de curia, ordinatúmque quod esset propter loci distantiam pro successoribus. Metropolis Ecclesiae Upsalen. 1557, p. 45. The date is 23 July, 1307. It must be left to experts to decide whether this text of these and the following Bulls, which have hitherto been thought to have been lost, is of any value. The style seems to be unusually weak in grammar; and the supposed author of the Chronicle was specially noted for his forgery of such documents. See p. 107, note 1 below, and Allacci's Animadversio there quoted, pp. 281, 288, 289.

Alia uero testimonialis epistola serui dei fratris Andree episcopi inferius scripta annotatur de statu fidei, & conditionibus orientis.

Rater ¹ Andreas de perusio de ordine fratrum minorum. divina permissione uocatus episcopus. Reuerendo patri. fratri. N. guardiano perusini episcopatus,2 salutem, & pacem in domino sempiternam. & infra. Nam propter immensa terrarum, & marium discrimina 3 inter me, & vos interiecta vix sperare possum quod littere ad uos per me trasmisse ad manus uestras ualeant peruenire. Noueritis me itaque cum bone memorie fratre peregrino coepiscopo, & mee peregrinationis indiuiduo comite post multos labores langores, & inedias variaque incomoda atque pericula in terra pariter, & in mari vbi fuimus rebus omnibus, & etiam tunicis, & abitibus spoliati. Demum deo iuuante ad cambalensem ciuitatem que sedes est imperij magni canis anno dominice incarnationis Mo. ccc xviij 4 ut credo peruenisse. vbi secundum mandatum a sede apostolica nobis datum archiepiscopo consecrato moram ibi per quinquennium ferme contraximus Jnfra quod spatium temporis procurauimus alapha ab imperatore magnifico pro uictu, & vestitu octo personarum. Est autem Alepha impense quas imper[at]or tribuit numptijs magnatorum oratoribus bella-

¹ Compare Journal R.A.S., July, 1914, pp. 564-7; Ann. Min., tom. iii, pp. 335, 6. Another, perhaps the earliest, copy of this letter exists at Assisi (a 14th century MS., No. 341 in the library of the Convent of S. Francis, fol. 136), but I have not yet been able to consult it.—Golubovich, op. cit., tome ii, pp. 103, 115.

² P. W. conuentus

⁸ P. W. mariumque distantiam

toribus, & diuersarum 1 artium artificibus, & ioculatoribus pauperibus, & diuersarum conditionum personis. impense plurium latinorum regum introitus, expensasque De diuitijs, magnificentia, & gloria huius trascendunt. magni imperatoris, de uastitate imperij multitudine populorum, & numerositate ciuitatum, & magnitudine earundem. & de ordinatione imperij in quo nemo aduersus alium ausus est leuare gladium transeo. quia longum foret scribere. & audientibus incredibilia uiderentur Nam ego ipse qui presens sum, talia audio que 2 uix credere possum. Est quedam magna ciuitas iuxta mare oceanum que uocatur in lingua persica Cayton ³ in qua vna diues domina Armena ecclesiam erexit pulcram satis, & grandem quam quidem de ipsius uoluntate per Archiepiscopum catredalem effectam 4 cum competentibus dotibus fratri Gerardo episcopo, & fratribus nostris qui cum eo erant donauit in vita, & in morte reliquit qui primus eandem catredam suscepit. Mortuo autem dicto episcopo, inibique sepulto uoluit archiepiscopus in eadem ecclesia me facere successorem. Set ego huiusmodi locationi, & successioni non assentiui vnde illam 5 contulit fratri peregrino 6 qui illuc habita oportunitate se contulit. Et postquam paucis annis rexit eandem anno domini 1322 [?]7 in crastino 8 apostolorum petri, & pauli diem clausit extremum, ante cuius decessum per quatuor fere annos ego quoniam in cabalech non eram consolatus ex aliquibus causis procuraui quod dictum alapha elimosina imperialis mihi daretur in prefata ciuitate Zayton,9 que distat a cambalech itinere fere mensium trium. 10 Et cum octo equitaturis ab imperatore mihi concessis ad eandem ciuitatem cum magno honore perrexi, & applicui adhuc fratre peregrino episcopo uiuente. Et in

¹ P. diuersorum ² P. quod

³ P. Cayton 4 W. in Cathedralem erectam,

⁵ P. \dot{W} . me non prebente assensum ipsam — W. omitting ego above. ⁶ P. W. add Episcopo memorato 7 P. m° . $ce^{.}$. $xxij^{\circ}$. W. 1322.

⁸ P. W. add octave 9 P. Cayton. W. Caytonis

¹⁰ P. W. mensium (W. hebdomadarum) fere trium ut dixi sollicite procurauj.

quodam nemore proximo ciuitati ad quartam partem vnius miliaris ecclesiam conuenientem, & pulcram edificari feci cum omnibus officinis sufficientibus pro xx fratribus, & cum quatuor cameris quarum quelibet esset pro quocunque prelato sufficiens. Jn quo quidem loco moram traho continuo, & viuo de elimosina regia memorata, que iuxta mercatorum Januensium extimationem ascendere potest annuatim ad valorem c. florenorum aureorum, uel circa. Et de hac elimosina magnam partem in edificatione loci predicti expendi cui similem in hermitorijs nostre prouincie nullum scio quo ad pulcritudinem, & omnem comoditatem. Denique non longo elasso tempore post obitum fratris peregrini recepi decretum archiepiscopi de locatione nostra ¹ in memorata ecclesia catredali, cui ² assensum prebui causa memorata 3 rationabili suadente Et nunc in loco uel ecclesia ciuitatis, & in hermitorio moram traho iuxta mee arbitrium 4 uoluntatis. Et sum sanus 5 corpore. & quantum longeuitas uite patitur vigorosus, & agilis, nil que preter canitiem habens de 6 defectibus naturalibus, & proprietatibus senectutis. San[e] in isto uasto imperio sunt gentes de omni natione que sub celo est & de omni secta. & conceditur omnibus, & singulis uiuere secundum sectam suam. Est enim hec oppinio apud eos, seu potius error quod vnus quisque in sua secta saluetur. Et nos predicare possumus libere, & secure. Set de iudeis, & saracenis nemo conuertitur. De ydolatris baptizantur quam plurimi. Set baptizati 7 non recte incedunt per viam xristianitatis sicut deceret. Quatuor nostri fratres martirizati fuerunt in india a saracenis, quorum vnus bis in ignem missus inlesus euasit. Et tamen ad tam stupendum miraculum nullus est a sua perfidia permutatus.8

¹ P. mea ² P. W. add locationi ³ P. W. omit memorata

⁴ P. W. facio iuxta mee libitum ⁵ P. W. sano

 $^{^6}$ W. patitur, aliquibus adhuc annis in hac messe laborare potero, licet canitiem habeam ex P. agrees exactly with the text, except that it has nichil quidem for nil que

⁷ W. multi ex baptizatis

⁸ P. W. add hec omnia—fratribus universis.—58 words, in which W. has discesserunt for P. decesserunt, but otherwise agrees exactly with P.

episcopi suffraganei facti per dominum papam Clementem cabaliensis sedis migrauerunt in pace ad dominum. Ego solus remansi. frater Nicolaus de Banthra olim minister prouincie sancti Francisci, k frater Andratius de Asisio. k vnus alius episcopus frater mortui fuerunt in ingressu indie inferioris, in terra quadam calidissima vbi plures alij fratres nostri mortui fuerunt, k sepulti. Valeat in domino uestra paternitas nunc k semper. Datum in Zayton anno domini m ccc xxvj in mense Januarij.

A careful examination of the three texts (P. W. and Chigi) of this letter shows that P. contains 796 words. Of these about 77.5 per cent are the same in all three texts; P. and W. agree in 13.5 per cent; P. and Chiqi in 5.5 per cent; W. and Chigi agree in about 1 per cent, and in omitting 6 words which P. includes; and in 7 words all three texts differ. The nine cases where W. follows Chigi against P. are que for quod, nostra for mea, diversarum for diversorum (a mere slip), Cayton for Cayton, secta (thrice) for septa, 1322 for m ccc xxij, and quatuor for .iiij. Of the 6 words in P. which W. and Chiqi omit, 4 are in rubrics or notes outside the real text and 2 are apparently a mere blunder (in Caito). Chigi omits 79 words, or nearly a tenth part of P, and of these Wadding has inserted 77 exactly as in P. and 2 with slight differences (subsequitur, sequitur; decesserunt, discesserunt). It will then be obvious that the text here printed from the MS. in the Chigi Library is not the one which Wadding used; and that he did use either P. (the Paris MS. Latin 5006) or some very similar text. Of the 796 words of P. Wadding reproduces 730 exactly, omits 15, differs in 51, the differences being often quite trivial and including differences of order, and adds 7 words. An analysis of the first letter of John of Monte Corvino shows an even greater degree of agreement between P. and Wadding. On the other hand, it will be noticed that

¹ P. W. omit olim . . . Francisci

² P. W. Andrutius

³ P. Data in Caito in Cayton W. Data in Cayton

while the cases in which P. differs from Chigi are about three times as many as those in which P. differs from Wadding, yet Chigi has hardly ever changed the sense of P. in any serious degree, though Wadding has done so frequently.¹

Besides the conclusive evidence of the text itself that the Chigi MS. was not used by Wadding, there is some external evidence to the same effect. Amongst Golubovich's conclusions from the data before him we read (p. 139) "that the Chigi codex is, paleographically, an evident forgery of Ceccarelli, and so clever a one as to have deceived the learned Wadding, who calls it vetustissimus codex ms." part of this statement I am not prepared to dispute, though it rests, as far as I yet know, on nothing better than these words of Edouard d'Alençon in the Introduction to his edition of T. de Celano's Life of St. Francis: "I have used the Codex Chisianus I, vii, 262, which seems to be in the hand of the aforesaid forger (Ceccarelli), for you would say that Leo Allacci had this MS, before him when he described another fictitious work of the same man." 2 The Chigi MS. I, vii, 262, is said to be entitled Chronica S. Johannis a Capistrano, and this, if true, gives great interest to the references to Leo

¹ Wadding's changes include iam ante duos annos for iam est annus duodecimus; magnus explorator for explorator magnus; sine socio for sine confessione; CL pueros for xl. pueros; Latinis, & Græcis ritu for latinis & ritu; regiis vestibus for sacris vestibus; Gothorum or Kathan for Cothay; scribo for teneo; eximiæ for exigit; 1308 for mo.ccc. xviij; iarulatoribus for ioculatoribus; hebdomadarum for mensium; 22. for .xx.; aliquibus adhuc annis &c. for vigorosus & agilis &c. (p. 104, note 6). On the other hand, the most important differences between Chigi and P., apart from large omissions, are perhaps XXX for XX; millesimo ijc. v. for mo.ccc. vo; vbi picture for vj picturas; nutritis & baptizatis for quos emj & battizauj; iij milia for plura milia; petrutius for Pctrus—mostly occurring in the space of a few lines, p. 91 above.

² adhibens Codicem Chisianum (Biblioteca Chigi), I, vii, 262, qui videtur autographum praedicti falsarii, nam hoc manuscriptum ante oculos habuisse diceres Leonem Allatium, quum aliud fictitium opus eiusdem describeret. Ed. Alenconiensis S. Francisci Assisiensis Vita, Rome, 1906, Proleg. p. lxxvi. I owe this reference and the following to Golubovich. Alfonso Ceccarelli (1532–83) seems to have been a prolific forger, who was ultimately executed for his pains.

Allacci, who in the seventeenth century devoted himself to exposing Ceccarelli's forgeries. Of these he gives a very long list, including five purporting to be by John of Capistrano. as follows: Ioannis de Capistrano Chronica, De Originibus Vrbium, Ciuitatum, & Oppidorum totius Mundi. ait Ciccarellus in ea laudari Chronicam Dominorum de Brunforte, & alios. . . . E[iusdem]. De vitis Sanctorum, & rebus Ecclesiæ. E. De Episcopatibus, & Archiepiscopatibus. . . . E. De origine, & religione militantium pro fide Iesu Christi, atque Ecclesiæ Romanæ defensione. E. De vera Donatione Constantini Imperatoris. "When," adds Allacci, "I spoke about these works of John of Capistrano to Luke Wadding, he burst into laughter at the mere hearing of their names." The next day Wadding wrote a letter, which Allacci prints, in which he says: "Your conversation yesterday and your note to-day about the works ascribed to John of Capistrano fill me with wonder." After describing John's legal training and writings, he proceeds: "The few little theological tracts which he mingled [with the legal], and the sermons which he preached, savour less of the theologian than of the lawyer. His manuscripts, brought from Capistrano to the City, I have had in my keeping, and have been at great pains to find out the titles, which I add to this note. . . . Those added by Ceccarelli are spurious. (He here repeats the five titles given above.) You will find nothing of this kind ever written by Capistranius, nothing historical did he ever plun; no trace of it, certainly, occurs in the rest of his works. . . . 5 Oct., 1641." 1

¹ Cum de hisce Ioannis ('apistranii monumentis sermonem haberem cum doctissimo . . . Luca Waddingo, sola eorum auditione in risum effusus est; . . . Leoni Allatio . . . F. Lucas Waddingus. Hesternus tuus sermo, & hodiernu pagella de speciosis Ioanni Capistranio adscriptis Operibus vehementer admirari faciunt, . . . Pancula, quæ intermiscet Theosophiæ argumenta, & quos e rostris dixit sermones, stylo, & methodo non tam Theologum sapiunt, quam Iurisconsultum. Autographa Capistrano, Aprutiorum oppido, in Vrbem aduecta penes me habui, & diligenter excussi ipsos comperititulos, quos literulis istis subiungo, . . . *spurii sunt, & degeneres, quos addit Ciccerellus, De Originibus Vrbium . . . Imperatoris. Nihil unquam in hoc genere a Capistranio scriptum, nihil usquam comperies de re historica meditatum: nullum prorsus in reliquis operibus occurrit vestigium.

If our MS. (I, vii, 262) is the same as the *De Originibus Urbium*, we have here the proof that both Allacci and Wadding himself (who does not seem to have seen the book) condemned it as a Ceccarellian forgery; but if, on the other hand, it is not the same, Wadding assures us that he knows of no such historical work among the rest of John's writings. The argument is not conclusive; but it seems to make it reasonably certain that Wadding, who had published the three letters from China from some Chronicle, which he attributed to Odoric, in 1636, and had made a special study of the works of John of Capistrano, had never heard of any *Chronica S. Johannis a Capistrano* until 4 October, 1641.

Turning again to the manuscripts themselves, a careful examination of the passages printed in 1914 from P. and now from the Chigi MS., other than the letters themselves, will give even better reason for thinking that Wadding did not use Chigi and may well have used P. To take the passages in order as printed in 1914, the introduction (p. 546) to the first letter is very much altered in Chigi and is omitted by Wadding, who substitutes for it words which have a bearing on the question of the last paragraphs of John's second letter. "Certainly in this very year [1305] he wrote two letters, the first in January. . . . The second he wrote near the end of the year to the brothers living in Persia and India. Both of them I have copied from a very ancient manuscript of the Blessed Odoric of Friuli." ² The next passage (pp. 551–2, Has litteras . . . archiepiscopo) also is altered, but not seriously,

^{. . . 3.} Non. Octob. 1641. Leonis Allatti Animaduersio in Libros Alphonsi Ciccarelli, Rome, 1642, pp. 318, 19, 321, 2. Cf. Wadding, Scriptores Ord. Min., 1650 (ed. 1806), pp. 134, 5. The 45 works of Ioannes Capistranus (1385–1456) here enumerated contain nothing historical. At the end of the list Wadding notes that the five works named above were attributed to Capistrano by Ceccarelli. Sed hace spuria sunt, & conficta ab insigni mendaciorum architecto, qui sub Gregorio XIII. tot imposturas . . . pæna luit capitali.

¹ The words ait in ea laudari Chronicam . . . Brunforte, afford an easy test of the identity of the two Chronicles for anyone who has access to the Chigi library.

² Ann. Min., iii, p. 41.

in Chigi, and omitted by Wadding. Coming to pp. 557-9 (Frater vero . . . interiorem et in yndiam) Wadding will be found to reproduce this long passage very exactly, adding 9 unimportant words, changing a few (of which praecipuis for propinquis and Petrus for Peregrinus are the most important) and omitting two or three; while Chigi shortens and changes the whole. The Pope's Bull (pp. 559-61) Wadding gives from Dilecto to ammiranda opera eius even more exactly. including the notes infra sequitur, and &c. quae sequuntur, while Chigi professes to give the complete text. Wadding then gives the letter Magno Regi omnium Tartarorum . . . Splendor patris . . . ending deest finis, which corresponds to &c. in P. (not printed in 1914); omits the paragraph Illi uero septem, but gives the story de fratribus minoribus uisitantibus captiuos in the right place according to P.

Whether the writer of the Chigi MS. used P. is not easy to decide from the few pages of either MS. which I have seen; but occasional coincidences of phrases or spelling (see p. 98, note 1, and the clumsy sentence $Et\ hic\ frater$... paramenta on p. 89 above and 1914, p. 551) incline one to think that Golubovich is right in saying that P. supplied those parts of the Chigi MS. which are common to both.

For our present purpose the most interesting addition to the documents hitherto known is the following letter from Bishop Peregrine of Zaitun. It is, of course, easy to suspect it of being spurious. The style is awkward and unnatural, though not so ungrammatical as that of the papal Bulls already given; and the fact that its existence seems never to have been suspected by any of the historians of the Minor Friars until this century is a very serious objection to its being genuine. If it is proved that the compiler derived all the rest of his Cathay material from P. the case against this letter will be even stronger. A considerable part of the subject-matter might have been invented with no great ingenuity from the letters of John and Andrew; the passage about King George, who had been murdered twenty years before, seeming specially

clumsy. But it is fair to remember that it was John's letters about King George which had caused Bishop Peregrine to be sent to Cathay; he calls him "that King George", and seems hastening to assure his friends that John's wonderful story was really true. The passages about the Armenians and the Alani could not be derived directly from any document known to me, but they are not either impossible or improbable, and the general truth of what is said about the Alani is confirmed by an extant letter from their own Chiefs.1 The date, which seems to have surprised Golubovich, is perfectly possible and natural, and the fact that no attempt is made to conceal its glaring inconsistency with the same date (1318) wrongly written in Andrew's letter a few lines lower down on the same page is in its favour. Of the persons named in the letter John, and Andrew, and King George would lie ready to the forger's hand; Peter of Florence would need far wider reading for his discovery, but he is a real person and might easily have been in Khanbalig in 1317/18; Johannes Grimaldi, Emanuel de Monticulo, and Ventura de Sarezana do not seem to be in Wadding's Index, list of martyrs, etc., nor in the Bullarium Franciscanum, though that does not prove that their names are invented. It is clear that many besides the few whose names we know reached China during the first half of the fourteenth century.

The letter begins on fol. 102 vo:-

Epistola

REuerendis in xristo patribus fratri .N. vicario generalis ministri, Ceterisque fratribus vicarie orientis frater peregrinus paupertatis episcopus in mundo alio constitutus Reuerentiam, & salutem, cum desiderio noua de mundo fidelium audiendi. Et si sicut prodigus filius fecissemus ego, & sotij mei fugientes ad terram longinquam sicut ceteri debuisset saltem pia mater religio recordari de filijs quos ad inauditum exilium destinauit. materna enim

¹ Cf. this Journal, Jan. 1917, pp. 13, 31.

viscera contra filium rigorem iustitie non admictunt. & infra. Episcopus sum licet indignus. & infra. Et pater frater Andreas de perusio episcopus, & ego peruenimus Dico igitur primo de Archiepiscopo fratre Gabalech. Johanne. Vita eius exterior bona, & dura, & aspera. De illo uero rege Georgio certum est quod ipsum plene, & laudabiliter conuertit ad ueram fidem, cum ante cum nestorianis misceretur. Et ipse rex vna die de suo populo plura milia conuertit. Et si vixisset uere totum populum eius, & regnum humiliassemus ad xristum. Et etiam magna canis mutatio facta fecisset. Ante uero quam frater Johannes archiepiscopus predictus ueniret ad imperium magni canis nullus xristianus cuiuscumque conditionis, & nationis esset preualere poterat erigere quantumcumque paruum oratorium, & signum xristi propter potentiam nestorianorum prohibentium. Et sic uel eos sequi cogebantur in ritu scismatico, & erroneo, uel quasi viam infidelium capere. postquam uero uenit frater Johannes deo ipsum iuuante malo uelle nestorianorum ecclesias plures erexit. Et alie nationes xristianorum qui odiunt nestorianos scismaticos, ipsum fratrem Johannem secute sunt. & precipue armeni qui sibi nunc notabilem construunt ecclesiam. & dare illi intendunt. vnde & ipse continue est apud eos, relicta ecclesia latinorum alijs fratribus. Item Quidam xristiani boni qui dicuntur alani pro xx milibus a rege maximo stipendia accipientes, ipsi, & familie eorum ad fratrem Johannem recurrunt. Et ipse eos confortat, & predicat. Nec uidemus. .& istis predicare possumus, & sacramenta ecclesie ministrare. Circa infideles uero libere possumus predicare, et in moscheta saracenorum pluries predicauimus ut conuertantur. Ydolatris uero similiter in magnis ciuitatibus eorum per duos medios interpetres. Multi congregantur, & ualde mirantur. & diligenter inquirunt de istis. Et quia nunc inceptum est spem bonam habemus uidentes populos intentos ad audiendum, & currendum vbi nos predicamus. Vere credimus quod si linguas eorum haberemus mirabilia dei apparerent. Messis multa valde.

set operarij pauci, & sine falce. Nam pauci fratres sumus, & senes admodum & inabiles ad discendas linguas Parcat deus illis qui fratres impediunt ne ueniant Vere credo quod inimicus hoc operatur ne inuadamus eius imperium quod sine molestia possidet. In cambaliech sunt archiepiscopi, & frater Andreas de perusio, & frater petrus de florentia episcopi. & eis nil deficit in temporalibus. In spiritualibus uero credo quod nunquam tantum habuerint. Irruit enim & uenit spiritus Sanctus in istos duos episcopos. & in tantum orationibus insistunt, & sanctis meditationibus. Et spiritus dei qui eos visitat, & consolatur, & fouent in tantum quod omnium uidentur esse obliti die ac nocte in sanctis uigilijs domino assistentes. Ego autem cayfensis episcopus factus ibi cum tribus fratribus deuotis pacifice, & tranquille deo uacare possum [fol. 103 ro] Et ipsi serui dei frater Johannes grimaldi, frater emanuel de monticulo, & frater uentura de Sarezana qui in istis partibus qui in istis partibus est frater factus, qui in omni uirtute bene fortificati deus honoratur per eos vtinam tales haberemus centum nobiscum. ciuitate Cayton bonam habemus ecclesiam cum loco. quam quedam domina Armenie nobis reliquit. & necessaria uite pro nobis & pro alijs si uenerint assignauit. & extra ciuitatem locum pulcrum habemus cum silua vbi cellas facere cupimus, & oratorium. Nulla alia re indigemus, quantum fratribus quos desideramus. Frater Gerardus episcopus mortuus est. & alij fratres non possumus diu uiuere. nec alij uenerunt remanebit ecclesia sine baptismo, & sine habitatoribus. Noua & condiciones istius magni imperij si scriberem non crederentur. quanta sit potentia ipsius, quanti exercitus. latitudo terre. quot redditus, quot expense, quot elimosinas faciunt. Comparauerunt eam nostri latini in hijs, ad omnes alios reges mundi. set excessum non scribo. Ciuitas maxima Cayton vbi sumus super mare est. & distat a maxima Cambalieth itinere fere trium mensium. datum in Zayton iij kal ianuarii anno domini 1.318

I take this opportunity of making some corrections in the earlier article of July, 1914.

Golubovich speaks of certain notes on the flyleaf of P. (B.N. MS. Lat. 5006) which I have been able to verify on rotographs obtained through the kindness of Monsieur H. Omont. They are (1) hunc librum dat frater Eleemosina . . . loco Gualdi . . . ; in a fourteenth century hand, not that of the scribe of the Chronicle itself. (2) Chronica historiarum antiquarum manuscrip. usq. ad. an 1334; nam usq ad benedict PP xii . . . fol 188. b; in a late sixteenth or seventeenth century hand. (3) a note, in the hand of the writer of the Chronicle, about cities which are named after persons: Sicut enim ab Alexandro magno Alexandrie .iiij. nuncupantur. and so forth. Below this is half a page of ancient writing quite illegible, with a sentence in a later hand written over it, beginning Habitus Pisanis; and (4) in a large irregular hand apparently of the first half of the seventeenth century: Cronica pa odoricio. On none of the pages seen by me is there a note that the MS. was finished in 1336, though that date may no doubt be inferred rom the closing words of the Chronicle on fol. 188 vo, col. 2, where we read: Hic etiam benedictus. papa. xii^{us}. preclaras & deuotas constitutiones. super ordines monachorum & fratrum minorum edidit & instituit observari & teneri ab eis ad reformationem religiose uite. & meritum uite eterne.

The first of these sentences is of great interest as telling a little of the very early history of the book. Golubovich, who thought it was in the same hand as the Chronicle, concluded that the author and writer was John Eleemosina, an Umbrian who died in 1339, and that he wrote his Chronicle in the convent at Assisi and bequeathed it to the convent of Gualdo. The only John who was the Pope's Almoner (Eleemosynarius) mentioned by Wadding (An. Min., vol. iii, p. 65, A.D. 1307) was a Roman.

It is noticeable that "Cronica pa odoricio" seems to have been written in Wadding's lifetime. It would be interesting to compare the writing with his. The constitutions mentioned in the last paragraph of the Chronicle (fol. 188 v°) must be those which were published on 28 November, 1336, and commended to the Minister General in a letter dated 13 May, 1337, and by him to the Provinces of the Order on 21 June, 1337. December, 1336, is thus the earliest possible date for the finishing of the Chronicle. An. Min., vol. iii, pp. 443, 445, 6.

The description of the MS. quoted on p. 534 (July, 1914) seems to have been copied by Sbaralea from Quétif's *Scriptores Ord. Praedicatorum*, vol. i, pp. 549, 50.

p. 535, l. 2. For 1635 read 1636

p. 547, note. Cathay and China were probably two quite distinct countries in the mind of John of Monte Corvino.

p. 551, l. 13. For 171 r° read 171 v°

p. 559, l. 12. For $\chi \rho$ isto read xpisto

p. 566, l. 6. For quin read quoniam

pp. 568-71. Go

Golubovich points out that a better text of John of Winterthur than that of Eccard is now bilable, namely, Johannis Vitodurani Chronicon. Die Chronik des Minoriten Johannes von Winterthur, edited by Georg von Wyss, in vol xi of Archiv für Schweizerische Geschichte, Zürich, 1856. The passage here quoted is on pp. 208-10. Besides differences of spelling the following changes may be noted:—

p. 569, l. 5. von Wyss prints ejus but says the MS. has eorum

p. 569, l. 25. convolarunt. In . . . epistola, ante

p. 569, l. 32. crediderit;

p. 570, l. 13. revocare sicut oves

p. 571. gratiam invenit in oculis principis sepedicti, quod eum . . . sentiebat. p.577, note 1. The use of infra is quite normal.

p. 581, l. 32. For Archbishop. 1 read to the Archbishop. and cancel the footnote.

p. 586, l. 14. For Lord read God

p. 587, l. 21. For Franchya read perhaps France

p. 590, l. 3. After son add Brother

p. 599. Professor Pelliot has identified Tozan with the Chinese 東 勝 Tung-shêng; and t, not c or k, is no doubt the right initial.

ADDITIONAL NOTE

Through the kindness of the Franciscan Fathers at Assisi and Quaracchi I am now able to give the readings of the Assisi MS. 341 (cf. p. 102, n. 1 above) where it differs from P. The references are to the Journal for July, 1914, where the text of P. will be found.

p. 564, l. 10. Vunus uero ex illis deuotis fratribus episcopis de ordine minorum qui missi fuerunt a domino papa Clemente. & a sancta romana ecclesia ad consecrandum in Archiepiscopum. fratrem Johannem supradictum. Tales epistolas modernis temporibus remisit. de se & alijs fratribus. illarum partium. ita dicens. l. 13. Perusio diuina l. 15. ffratrj. NN l. 17. sempiternam. &cetera. & infra pluribus uerbis pretermissis. sequitur. l. 21. peruenire. &cetera. & infra. dicit.

p. 565, l. 1. Alafa. l. 3. omit quas imperator l. 14. credere ualeo. unde ad propositum rediens ad ea que me contingunt stilum calamumque conuerto. Est l. 20. Episcopo. qui primus eandem Cathedram suscepit & fratribus qui cum eo erant nostris donauit in uita. & in morte reliquid.

p. 566, l. 4. xxiij l. 10. mihi ab imperatore concessis l. 12. sepe fato l. 16. omit et l. 30. Et sum sanus . . . quantum etatis longeuitas patitur . . . defectibus accidentibus & proprietatibus ll. 35, 36. secta sectam

p. 567, l. 2. omit Et nos l. 5. per uiam xpistianitatis incedunt. omit de sanctis fratribus. l. 6. In yndia quattuor nostri fratres occisi fuerunt l. 10. sub quadam breuitate perscripta uestre l. 25. omit in Zaito

~ERRATA

The following errata are to be made in the article "On the Representation of Tones in Oriental Languages" appearing in the Journal for October, 1920:—p. 455, footnote, l. 2, for "Anthropus" read "Anthropos". p. 465, wherever the word "Quocangu" occurs, correct it to "Quocangu".

Proceedings of the Society of Biblical Archæology

Back numbers of the *Proceedings* of the Society of Biblical Archeology are still in great demand, especially Vols. 30-38. Any numbers that members can spare will be most gratefully accepted.

Hakluyt Society's Publications

If any member has copies of Hakluyt Society's publications, Original Series, Nos. 1-25, 27-41, 43-52; also Series II, Vols. 5 and 29, they would be gratefully accepted for the Library.

THE SARROSH K. R. CAMA MEMORIAL PRIZE

The Committee of the K. R. Cama Oriental Institute invite competitive essays for "The Sarrosh K. R. Cama Prize" of the value of Rs. 225 on the following subject: "Life of Zoroaster as based on the Avesta,"

The essays should be typewritten or written in a neat, legible hand, and should reach the Honorary Secretaries the K. R. Cama Oriental Institute, Hornby Road, Fort, Bombay, on or before July 15, 1921. Each essay should be designated by a motto instead of the writer's name, and should be accompanied by a sealed cover containing the name of the competitor and his Post Office address. The competition is open to both Zoroastrians and non-Zoroastrians.

MISCELLANEOUS COMMUNICATIONS

SACRED BOOKS OF THE YEZIDIS

In July, 1916, I wrote an article in this *Journal* (505–26) on the Yezidis and their sacred books. In it I endeavoured to set forth my reasons for believing why the paternity of the recently discovered Yezidi books had to be traced back to some subtle forgers. Nothing that appeared since that date induces me to change my views on the subject; on the contrary, much has come to light to confirm them.

Captain H. P. W. Hutson, R.E., a prominent member of our Mesopotamian expeditionary force, who has had the unique opportunity of studying on the spot the habits and customs of the community of the Yezidis or Devil-worshippers, was fortunate enough to procure a manuscript purporting to contain the sacred books of the Yezidis in their original language. Believing them to be written in Kurdish he began to correspond with all the Orientalists who in his opinion were able to read Kurdish. Eventually the manuscript was sent to me for examination, and I immediately discovered that, apart from some short prayers written in Kurdish, it contained nothing but an Arabic text similar to that of the Yezidi books of which I had previously treated at some length. Appended to the manuscript was a colophon which in view of its importance for the criticism of the Yezidi books I want to publish in extenso as it stands:-

سنة ٢٢٠٠ سنة اليونانية سنة ١٨٨٩ سنة المسيحية سنة ١٣٠٥ سنة الهجرية الداعي بالديانة اليزيدية بكل وقت امير شيخ اسمعيل بن امير عبدي من ذرية شيخ آدى وهذا الكتاب تاريخ يازيدية سنة ٢١٦٠ كان ضاع

وسنة ١٨٨٩ مسيحية جلبه بطرك بطرس على ملة السريان من الهند ووجده وجلبه ووضعه بدير الزعفران وثماني بستاريخ سنة ١٩١٤ مسيحية انا المذكور تواجهت مع مطران الياس الموصلي وقال ليى لنا كتاب بدير الزعفران وحالا سافرت لهاردين مع عائلتى وأبنى وحصلت امر المحافظين للدرب من والي الموصل ووصلت لهاردين وبعده بكم يوم رحت لدير بعزة واكرام وجلبنا هذا الكتاب معنا.

"The year 2200 of the Greeks is the year 1889 of the Christian era and 1305 of the Hijra.1 (From the one) who professes the Yezidi faith at all times, the Amīr Sheikh Ismā'īl, son of the Amīr 'Abdi from the descendants of Sheikh Ādi: this book containing the history of the Yezidis was lost in the year 2160,2 and in the Christian year 1889 Peter, the Patriarch of the Syrian community, brought it from India, where he had found it, and put it in the monastery of Za'farān (near Mardīn). Then in the Christian year 1914 I, the above-mentioned, had an interview with Bishop Alyas of Mosul, who told me that we had such a book in the monastery of Za'farān. I journeyed immediately to Mardin with my family and my son, and I obtained from the vali of Mosul the services of some gendarmes to protect us on the Some days after I reached Mardin I went to the monastery, and we brought the book with us."

¹ 1305 A.H. corresponds with A.D. 1887 (19 Sept.).

² 2160 of the Greeks corresponds with A.D. 1849.

On this important colophon the following short commentary may be found useful:—

- (a) The colophon is undoubtedly written by the same hand that wrote the manuscript itself.
- (b) We have in it the spectacle of a prominent Yezidi sheikh knowing nothing of the fact that his community possesses any sacred books. The existence of such books is revealed to him by a Christian bishop in A.D. 1914.
- (c) These sacred books were mysteriously lost in A.D. 1849 from the mountain of Sinjār, near Mosul, and by an uncommon stroke of fortune they were in 1889 discovered in India, where they had been taken away, no one knowing how or when.

For those interested in the Yezidis and their sacred books it may not be out of place to remark that after the date of my article in this Journal, three important publications have appeared on the subject: A. Dirr, Einiges über die Jeziden (Anthropos, 1918, 558-74); Isya Joseph, Devil Worship, pp. 220 (Boston, 1919); and F. Nau, Recueil de textes sur les Yézidis (Rev. de l'Or. Chrét., 1917, pp. 142-200, 225-77).

A. MINGANA.

THE KITAB MA'ANI AS-SI'R, BY IBN QUTAIBA

In 1906 Rhodokanakis published in the Nöldeke Festschrift (pp. 385 ff.) a description of the manuscript of the Kitāb aš Šiʻr, which he had discovered in the library of the Ayā Sofia Mosque in Constantinople. The manuscript contained only the first part of the work, namely, the first three books. The Constantinople manuscript has fifteen lines to the page, and at the end it is stated that the next book would begin

with the chapter on flies . During a visit to the India Office on the occasion of the Joint Session of the Oriental Societies in London in September, 1919, I was attracted by a manuscript of the same work exhibited in the reading-room

of the library of the India Office. With their usual liberality, the authorities of the India Office have permitted me to study this manuscript at my home, and I was pleased to discover that this manuscript actually appears to be the continuation of the Constantinople one, as it begins with the explanation of verses in Ancient Arabic poetry mentioning flies. The India Office manuscript also has fifteen lines to the page to folio 142 inclusive; folio 143, which is the beginning of a new Kurrāsa, has seventeen lines to the page, which is maintained to the end of the volume.

Unfortunately, for the sake of concealing the fact that the manuscript does not contain the complete work, a previous owner has torn away several leaves marking the end and beginning of fresh books. Through this vandalism the titlepage is missing, which would tell us that the manuscript begins with the fourth book. After folio 39 at least one leaf is torn away. Folio 86a contains the colophon of the fourth book, and as the latter only occupied two lines the copyist has used the remainder of the page for the title of the fifth book. Further leaves are torn away after folios 108 and 111. One leaf or more is missing after folio 122, where vol. v ends. This leaf contained the title-page of vol. vi, which comprises the book on war, as is evident from the colophon folio 224b, and also from the contents of this section of the work. On folio 133 the Kurrāsas are numbered for the first time; it is folio 15 which begins here, showing that so far eight leaves are missing. From folio 143 each page has seventeen lines, but the handwriting is the same throughout the volume, and from folio 203 a different paper of a pink tint is used. The sixth volume ends on folio 224b, but there is an addition which is stated to have been found in the handwriting of Ibn Qutaiba on the back of the book on war; this addition ends folio 225a. The next page is blank, and the title on folio 226 tells us that this is the beginning of the seventh volume, which is the last of the whole work. The text runs on without interruption to folio 272, where the manuscript

ends, except that the fold beginning folio 123 has only eight leaves, but as no gap is apparent, the scribe must have used in mistake a smaller fold than usual.

Each book is divided into smaller chapters, which, according to their subjects, vary considerably in extent. The fourth book contains the explanations of verses on various animals, the fifth book on hatred, hostility, imprisonment, etc., the sixth book on war and implements of war, also confederation and hostility, the last book on games of chance, auguries, poetry, elegies, old age, good manners, and nobility of character.

The following is a list of chapters:-

	_		One leaf is missing.
Fol.			S
1a	•	•	باب في الذُبابِ
4a	•	•	الابيات في الجَرَادِ
6a		•	الابيات فى النحهل و العسل
126		•	الابيات فى الجُمُلِ
13b			الأبيات في القُرادِ
16b			الابيات في النَمْلِ
17 <i>b</i>	•	•	باب فى الضفادع و البِحيتانِ .
23a			الابيات في الظَّربِانِ
27b			الايبات في القُنْفُدِ
25a			الابيات في الجرِْذانِ و الفأر
95b	•		الابيات في الحرُّ باءِ

Fol. $27a$	الابيات في الحَيَّةِ
33a	الابيات في العقارب
33b	الابيات في ضروب من لهُوَامٌ .
36a	الابيات في الشاء و المَعْرِزِ
	After fol. 39 on leaf torn away.
4 1 <i>b</i>	الابيات في الظباء و البَقَرِ
78b	الصايد والحِبالة و القُتْرَة
83b	الابيات في الكيناسِ
87 <i>b</i>	دخول الظباء الكُنْسَ في الحَرّ
86a	End of vol. iv.
	Beginning of vol. v.
86b	الابيات في الوَعيِدِ
102b	في الدُعاء بالشتّرِ و اليُمْنِ
105a	الابيمان
108a	العَدَاوَةُ و البَغْضَاءِ
	After 108 one leaf missing at least.
	After 111 one leaf missing.
121a	القَيْدُ و الْغُلُّ
122 b	End of Vol. V
	At least one leaf torn away.

Fol.			Γ	٦,,,
123a			بيات في الحرب]	اللا

133 shows that Kurrāsa 15 begins.

[143a. Now seventeen lines, custos showing that the 16th Kurrāsa begins, which show that eight leaves are lost; this should be fol. 151. These must have been lost before fol. 123.]

159b	فى الطمنة والشَجة و الضَرُ بَةِ
171a	باب المعاني في الدِيَاتِ
175b	باب فی الثأر
181a	البَيْنُض و الدُّرُوع
184 <i>b</i>	باب في القِسِيّ و السهِمَامِ
197a	باب في السيُونُفِ
203a	Other paper to end.
204a	باب في الرُمْخ ِ
209a	باب فى التُرس و المُنْجَنيقِ
210a	باب فى الجِوَارِ و الحِلف و الإغاثة .
217b	باب في العَدَاوَةِ والبَغْضَاءِ
224 b	هذا آخر ما وُجِدَمن المعاني في كتاب
	الحرب والحمد لله الح وكان على ظهر
	كتاب الحرب بخطّ ابني محمد بني
	قُتُيْبَةَ البخ

Fol. $225a$	End of sixth book تم والحمد لله ربّ
	العالمين الخ
225b	Blank
226a	Title السابع من كتاب الهعاني لا بن
	قُتُيْبَةَ وهُوٓآخر الكتاب فيه المَيْسِر
	والشيعر والشُعَرَاءُ والمراثبي والشيب
	رالكبِبَرُ والآداب وغير ذلك
226b	الابيات في المَيْسرِ

231a. New Kurrāsa, apparently two leaves are missing in the preceding fold, but as the text goes on smoothly the original fold must have consisted of eight leaves only.

236b	باب المعانى فى وصف الشعر والشُعُرَاء
238a	ابيات المعانى في التَطَيُّرِ والفَـاْلِ
241a	ابيات المعانى فى وَصْفِ الآثار .
245a	ابيات المعاني في المراثي
251a	[الابيات في الكبِبَرِ] No title
257b	ابيات المعاني في الآداب
265b	الابيات في مكارم الاخلاق

272. Last folio, much damaged, but not the end of the work; how much is missing cannot be said, but as fol. 271 begins the 29th Kurrāsa we may assume eight leaves, but from the title the subjects are practically finished.

The system followed by Ibn Qutaiba is to give one or more verses of classical poets, and explain the difficult words. Apparently he has had at his disposal a number of Diwāns, which he extracts, and for convenience sake he frequently gives several citations from various poems of one poet on the same subject before he cites another poet. The explanations very often appear copied straight from the copies of the Diwāns, so that the words "he said" do not refer to the author but to the commentator he has extracted. The number of poets quoted is very considerable, all are of the classical period, and his citations are important enough to say that the whole work deserves to be edited on the hand of the

two available manuscripts. For the poet the India Office manuscript alone contains a considerable number of verses which were unknown to me when the text of the Diwān was printed, and I regret that I did not know at the time that this manuscript existed in the library of the India Office. He quotes largely from the poems of Hudalis, al-A'sā, Ibn Muqbil, and many of the poets already edited, giving in many cases useful emendations of the texts printed. The book on war and war-implements would supplement in a large degree the valuable work of Schwarzlose on the weapons of the Arabs.

F. KRENKOW.

ALPHABETICAL INDEX TO ARABIC TRADITION Third Communication

1. Since the appearance of the second communication (JRAS. 1918, p. 548), the following gentlemen have joined

the work: Dr. C. van Arendonk (Leiden); Rev. R. Bell (Beattock); Rev. J. Robertson Buchanan (Culross); A. Fück (Frankfort); W. Heffening (Frankfort); Rev. Brockwell King (Toronto); F. Krenkow (Quorn); Dr. L. Mayer (Berlin); Professor Dr. A. Schaade (Hamburg); Dr. A. Siddiqi (Aligarh); F. Taoutel (Paray-le-Monial); T. H. Weir (Glasgow).

Still the collaboration of more Orientalists remains desirable.

- 2. Large parts of Bukhārī's text have been treated. Nearly all the chapters are being prepared. Of the other collections, sundry pieces are finished.
- 3. It appears that of Dārimī's text at least one Oriental edition exists which is not inferior to those of the other authors. On this ground, as also with a view to the high cost of printing, Professor Snouck Hurgronji thinks it advisable to abandon the project of a new edition. As regards an edition of Ibn Mādja, a decision has not yet been arrived at.

A. J. WENSINCK.

LEIDEN.

NOTICES OF BOOKS

THE ARCTIC HOME IN THE RIG-VEDA: AN UNTENABLE Position. By N. K. Dutt, M.A. pp. vii and 95. Dacca, 1918.

The object of this booklet is to refute the conclusions arrived at in the late Mr. Tilak's The Arctic Home in the Rig-Veda. The latter author followed the same method as those who seek to prove the Baconian theory of Shakespeare by picking out the data that seem to support their view, while ignoring all opposing evidence. In conformity with this plan Mr. Tilak sought to demonstrate from the Riqueda that the undivided Aryans lived somewhere within a few degrees of the North Pole, inasmuch as that ancient collection of hymns contains "clear and unmistakable references to Arctic phenomena". The refutation of so far-fetched a theory presents no great difficulties, but as far as I am aware no Western Vedic scholar has ever thought it worth his while to attempt the task. It is, however, satisfactory that an Indian should have undertaken it, for his countrymen may thus be more easily prevented from accepting the extravagant conclusions of The Arctic Home. Mr. Dutt has here, in reliance on sound, common-sense arguments, successfully accomplished his purpose. But beyond this I fear I am unable to find any merit in the present work. What strikes one most forcibly, both in The Arctic Home and in Mr. Dutt's criticism of it, is the futility of efforts to extract "history" from the Rigveda without possessing the necessary philological equipment. Historical conclusions of any value can be based solely on exact translations, which can only be produced by intimate familiarity with the grammar, the syntax, the metre, the accent, the vocabulary, and the mythology of the Rigveda. Neither Mr. Tilak nor his critic shows any such qualification. To substantiate this assertion in the case of Mr. Tilak would be superfluous here, but it seems necessary to adduce a few of the mistranslations with which Mr. Dutt's book teems. Thus cakrám iva . . . á vavṛtsva (iii, 61.3) is rendered "thou movest like a wheel"; it should be "roll hither like a wheel", á vavrtsva being, of course, an imperative, not an indicative. The line urvim gávyūtim ábhayam krdhī nah (vii, 77. 4) is translated "render our pasture lands free from fear ". Here one of the primary rules of grammar is infringed, an adjective in the neuter (ábhayam) being made to agree with a feminine substantive (gávyūtim). The correct translation is "make wide pasture, (make) safety for us". The rendering of the line apa dvéso maghónī duhitá divá uṣá ucchad ápa srídhah (i, 48. 8) is "for she, the wealthy goddess Dawn, the Daughter of the Sky, scatters the enemies and the oppressors". This should be "may the bounteous daughter of Heaven, the Dawn, drive away (with her light) hatred, away hostilities". The form ucchad is, of course, not indicative, but injunctive. The hemistich ápa tyé tāyávo yathā | nákṣatrā yanti aktúbhih is rendered "those well-known thieves disperse, with night, like the stars". This rendering is contrary to the rules of both accentuation and syntax. The adverb $y ath \bar{a}$ when unaccented is equivalent to iva, and must then always be taken with the preceding word; an unaccented yathā at the end of one Pāda could not possibly be connected with the first word of the next. The passage must be translated "away, like thieves, go those stars with the nights". The rendering of nearly every stanza quoted by Mr. Dutt from the Rigveda suffers from similar inaccuracies and errors.

Unconscious of his limitations Mr. Dutt overestimates the importance of his achievements. Thus he thinks he has been the first to discover why the poets of the Rigveda express fear of the darkness of night; for he remarks: "to our great misfortune, none of the Vedic scholars, eastern or western, have in their efforts to discover the causes of such apprehensions ever fully entered into the history of the times. The real causes of these mighty apprehensions have not,

therefore, been yet satisfactorily explained by any one." Vedic scholars who read the *Rigveda* know pretty well that the fear of darkness was due chiefly to the attacks of wild animals and robbers, because this is expressly stated in the hymns; but they have probably wished to avoid the statement of platitudes.

Mr. Dutt seems to be firmly convinced that his conjectures on the obscure question of the "Five Tribes" represent historical certainty. Thus he says: "the Rigveda is quite clear in its utterances about the identity of the Five Tribes." The Riqueda tells us that the Five Tribes lived on the Sarasvatī, but Mr. Dutt's remark that "the five tribes formed a clan [!] by themselves quite distinct from those who dwelt on the tributaries of the Indus" does not advance matters much, for he does not even attempt to identify them with any of the many Aryan tribes mentioned in the Rigveda. This cannot, in fact, be done owing to the fragmentary and obscure nature of the evidence regarding the Five Tribes and their relations with King Sudas. Mr. Dutt asserts that the present writer is in this connexion "entirely wrong", "is guilty of unpardonable confusion", has committed "another serious blunder", and that "Dr. Macdonell's account is full of gross historical blunders" or "palpable historical blunders" (pp. 33 and 37), and that one of his statements is "entirely unsupported". These strictures are directed against the very brief account of the tribes of the Rigveda given in my History of Sanskrit Literature, which was published twenty years ago (1900). Some of my suggestions there put forward may be But perhaps Mr. Dutt is not aware that in criticizing any writer's views he ought to take the latest statement of those views into consideration. Such a statement is to be found in Professor Keith's and my Vedic Index, which appeared twelve years later (1912), and in which all the evidence concerning the five tribes and their relations with King Sudas are collected and discussed.

Mr. Dutt's inaccuracy runs uniformly through his book.

JRAS. JANUARY 1921.

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It is very conspicuous in the transliteration of the numerous stanzas quoted from the Rigveda. These are printed without diacritical marks, without accents, nearly always without Sandhi, while words are occasionally omitted, or wrongly substituted for others, or are not separated. These combined defects often go so far as to render a passage utterly unintelligible and to necessitate reference to the Devanāgarī edition of the text for enlightenment. Here are a few examples: urvim gavyutim abhoyam kridhinah (for urvīm gávyūtim ábhayam krdhī naḥ); ushaw ucchat apa sridhah (for uṣā ucchad ápa srīdhaḥ); apa tya tayavoh yatha nakṣatrah yanti uktibhih (for ápa tyé tāyávo yathā | nákṣatrā yanti aktúbhiḥ); vivarthayantim vhuvanāni vishva (for vivartáyantīm bhúvanāni víśvā); vairat agni didechi (for revád agne didīhi); tamasha antah (for támasó 'ntāḥ) (p. 55).

The same carelessness appears in single Vedic words mentioned throughout the book; thus Shunahshwepa twice (p. 94) stands for Śunahśepa; Bharadvāja becomes Varadwaja (p. 6); Druhyu constantly appears as Druhya, the Druhyus become the Druhsus (p. 34), and the Trisus the Trisus (p. 30) or Tristsus (p. 32). The river Śutudrī is variously mentioned as the Satudri (p. 25), Satadru (p. 3), and Satadri (p. 10); the river Paruṣṇī is at least five times called the Purushni (pp. 3, 28, 35, 36). The Ārjīkīyā becomes the Arjikia (p. 3) or the Arjakia (p. 12), and is identified with the Vipās, the modern Biūs—an improbable conjecture. The Bipas (Vipās) itself is said to be the Ravi (p. 21), which is really the Paruṣṇī. This he himself elsewhere (p. 3) admits, when he identifies it with the Irāvatī (i.e. the Ravi).

Mr. Dutt is careless in regard to the meaning of Vedic words, even common ones; thus (p. 94) he translates the infinitive ánu étave "to go repeatedly", and bases an argument on this sense; but there is absolutely no reason to give this compound verb any but its natural and invariable meaning of "to go after or along", "to follow" (a path). In many other cases he seems to be quite ignorant of the results of

research in regard to the meanings of Vedic words; thus he translates pārāvata-ghnī as "destroyer of both banks", and vadhrivāc as "garrulous". Of the latter word he says: "in the Rig-veda the word vadhrivachah 'garrulous' has always been applied to the non-Aryans." As a fact this word occurs only once in the Rigveda, and is there (vii, 18, 9) only applied to "enemies" (amitrān). Even if it did mean "garrulous", how could this possibly prove that these enemies were non-Arvans? These non-Arvans were, Mr. Dutt thinks, Shruta (śruta), Kavash (Kavasa), Bridha (vrddha), Druhya (Druhyu), and Ayu (?), a list which he enumerates several times (p. 34, etc.). But what reason has he to suppose that śruta here does not mean "famous" and vrddha "old"? And where is Ayu in this connexion to be found in the text of this hymn? Can Anu possibly be meant? But even if all these five are proper names, how is it, supposing them to belong to non-Aryans, that they are apparently all Sanskrit? Again, Kavasa occurs only once in the Rigveda, and (as a singular) the name of an Aryan man, not even of a tribe.

This review may be thought much too long for so small a book. It is, however, only a somewhat detailed criticism that can show how foolish it is for students of the *Rigueda* who do not possess the necessary philological equipment to engage prematurely in "research" which they may otherwise delude themselves into thinking is "historical", and how little value there can be in scholarship which lacks the fundamental qualities of consistency and exactness.

A. A. MACDONELL.

Tales of the Saints of Pandharpur. By C. A. Kincaid, C.V.O. Humphrey Milford Publisher. Oxford University Press. 1919.

This is a translation of some short notices of Mahratta saints, who lived in a sacred town in the Sholapur district of the Bombay Presidency. The originals were written in the Mahratta language by a poet named Mahapati, who belonged

to Ahmadnagar. Some of the notices are interesting, but they do not appear to be genuine folklore or to be of great antiquity, for Mahapati was born in 1715, and we are not told where he got his facts. The introduction by Mr. Kincaid contains an interesting account of Mahapati. Some of the saints described were not Mahrattas, and apparently had little or no connexion with Pandharpur. For instance, we have notices of the weaver Kabīr, who belonged to Northern India and was by birth a Muhammadan, and of Jayadeva, who was a native of Bīrbhūm. Of Kabīr, who was so catholic in his sympathies that both Brahmans and Sunnis wanted to perform his funeral rites, there is a short notice in Abu-l-fazl's Ayīn Akbari (Jarrett's translation). Jayadeva, though apparently a Bengali, is claimed by Mahapati to have been a native of Orissa (p. 18). The mixture of saints from various parts of India in native hagiologies is interesting, as showing that after all there is, and always has been, a bond of unity between the inhabitants of Bhāratavarsha. In Greece the bond was the Olympic games, in India it was the pilgrimages. In spite of the affected contempt of northern Indians for the people of the Gangetic Delta, some Bengali saints are held in high honour all over India. Saints, both Hindu and Muhammadan, are great wanderers. One Bengali settled in the Maldives and another in Sylhet.

Though there is a wearisome sameness in most of the stories, arising, perhaps, from the fact that they are all the production of one man, one or two have characteristic features. Thus, in the story of Bhamdas and Ramaraj, which is connected with the famous city of Vijayanagar, there is a trait which reminds us of the Christian Gospels. Ramaraj, who was the last king of Vijayanagar, and who fell at Talikota in 1565, was wroth with Bhamdas for an alleged act of theft, and ordered him to be impaled. The guards took him away, and, just as Jesus Christ was compelled to carry His cross, so was Bhamdas made to bear on his shoulder the massive stake on which he was to be tortured. But a miracle occurred as soon as the

post was driven into the ground! The wood threw out leafy branches, and on these appeared ripe fruits and fragrant flowers (p. 42).

H. BEVERIDGE.

September 23, 1920.

Annals of the Bhandarkar Institute, 1918-19 and 1919-20. Vol. I, Pts. 1 and 2. 8vo. Poona, 1919-20.

"The object of this Institute," says Sir R. G. Bhandarkar in his masterly Inaugural Address, which is printed as the first paper in these Annals, " is to promote, among its members, a spirit of inquiry into the history of our country-literary, social, and political—and also to afford facilities to outsiders engaged in the same pursuit." If one may judge from the Annals now before us, this object is in a fair way to be fulfilled, for the papers contained in them are generally scholarly and instructive. In Part 1 Sir R. G. Bhandarkar's Inaugural Address, full of sound criticism and wise guidance, is followed by a note by Mr. K. B. Pathak in support of his view that Śākaṭāyana composed the Amōgha-vṛtti under Amōgha-varṣa I; a translation of M. Sylvain Lévi's paper on the phrase tatō jayam udīrayēt; Dr. V. S. Sukthankar's important essay, "On the Home of the so-called Andhra Kings" (i.e. the Sātavāhanas), which he locates to the west of the Andhra-deśa and in the neighbourhood of Bellary; a translation of Professor Meillet's article on the root lubh; "An Attempt to determine the Meanings of certain Vedic Words," by Mr. V. K. Rajwade, who discusses āhunas, vihāyas, krpā, mēhanā, citra, and sasni; a paper by Dr. Sukthankar on the Besnagar inscription of Heliodoros, in which he makes some corrections of the text, and ingeniously accounts for the unusual order of the Prakrit words by the supposition that they were translated word-for-word from Greek; and a study of the chronology of the late Imperial Guptas by Mr. R. D. Banerji. Part 2 contains: "The History and Significance of Upamā," by Mr. V. S. Sowani, an

interesting study of the technical term upamā from Vedic times; "Pusyamitras in Gupta Period," by Mr. H. R. Divekar, who makes the plausible emendation yudhy = $amitr\bar{a}\dot{m}\dot{s} = ca$ (alas, shockingly misprinted on p. 101) for Dr. Fleet's reading $Pusyamitr\bar{a}m\dot{s} = ca$ in CIG. iii, p. 55; a "Comparison of the Bhāṣyas of Śankara, Rāmānuja, Kēśavakaśmīrin, and Vallabha on some crucial Sūtras", by Mr. R. D. Karmarkar; "The Organism of the Muslim State under the Caliphs," by Dr. S. Khuda Bukhsh; a report by Mr. N. B. Utgikar on the work being done at the Bhandarkar Institute in the critical examination of the Devanāgarī recension of the Mahābhārata for the projected Pant Pratinidhi edition, in which he gives some noteworthy results of the comparison of the MSS. of the Sabhā-parva; and "The Sañjamamañjarī of Mahēsarasūri", by Dr. P. D. Gune, who gives us the text of a little Apabhramsa poem on Jain morals with its Sanskrit chāyā and some grammatical notes. There is likewise much of interest in the reviews and notices and the miscellaneous and editorial notes. With so much good material it is to be regretted that in technical "get-up" these Annals leave something to be desired. The proof-reading has not always been as rigorous as it should be: and the neglect to use the signs of length over long words in transliterated Sanskrit words has sometimes led to deplorable results in Part 1, from which Dr. Sukthankar has been the chief sufferer. Otherwise the Annals are full of promise.

L. D. BARNETT.

THE DREAM QUEEN: a Translation of the Svapnavasavadatta of Bhasa. By A. G. Shirreff and Panna Lall. 12mo; pp. v, 55. Allahabad: Indian Press. 1918.

This little book contains a rendering in English blank verse of the first of the interesting old dramas published by

¹ An awful example of this is seen on p. 62, where he is made to assert that the last word of 1. 3 of the Besnagar inscription is and is not Takhasilakena. Lack of Greek type, too, has compelled Dr. Sukthankar to transliterate Greek sentences into roman, and with these the printers have played havoc.

Pandit Ganapati Sastri in the Trivandrum Sanskrit Series in 1912 foll. The alleged authorship of Bhāsa, on which I have already expressed my opinion in the columns of this Journal, is accepted by the translators in unquestioning faith, with all its consequences. Their version will certainly be useful in introducing readers who have little or no Sanskrit to a fine old play on a typically Indian theme. As their rendering is in verse, it is necessarily paraphrastic, and so pallava-grāhi criticism as regards its verbal accuracy in details is disarmed. Something, however, may be said about its general literary character. The original play consists of lively prose dialogue in Sanskrit and dialect, interspersed with spirited stanzas; and for this Mr. Shirreff, who takes upon himself the responsibility for the versification, has substituted blank verse throughout. He may claim the same credit as the Aristophanic Euripides:-

έλεγεν ή γυνή τέ μοι χώ δοῦλος οὐδὲν ήττον χώ δεσπότης χή παρθένος χή γραῦς ἄν,

to which, though we will not make the same retort as does Æschylus in the play, we must reply that the effect is distinctly monotonous. Mr. Shirreff gives us poetry of limited liability: his muse is inspired by no Bacchic fervour to fly to the mountain-tops, but walks slowly and cautiously along the plains. Such a course has its disadvantages for the reader.

L. D. BARNETT.

Annals and Antiquities of Rajasthan. By Lieut.-Col. James Tod. Edited by William Crooke, C.I.E., D.Sc. Three vols. Oxford University Press, 1920.

Tod's great work on Rājputāna has long ago taken rank as a classic, and its enduring value is unquestioned; yet to the present generation of readers it is rather an object of veneration than a familiar friend. This is due partly to its prolixity (the edition under review runs to over 1,900 pages),

but mainly to the fact that the original issue (1829-32) has long been scarce and expensive, while no satisfactory reprint has been available. The enterprise of the Oxford University Press has removed this difficulty, and we have now just such an edition as was wanted-at once handy, complete, and scholarly. For Dr. Crooke's editing no praise can be too high. His only interference with the text consists in modernizing the spelling of names and in substituting more correct translations in the case of quotations from such works as Jahangīr's Memoirs. His own notes are succinct and apt, and lend the reader invaluable assistance by pointing out where Tod has fallen into error or where his statements have been corrected by later discoveries. An introduction of twenty pages gives an account of the author's life and an estimate of the merits and defects of his work. All the illustrations (the originals of which are mostly in the possession of the Royal Asiatic Society) have been reproduced, of course on a smaller scale; while five fresh ones have been provided, including three portraits of the author. One of these-an Indian drawing showing Tod at work on his book with his Jain Guru-is of special interest.

W. F.

LES GROTTES DE TOUEN-HOUANG. Peintures et Sculptures bouddhiques des époques des Wei, des T'ang et des Song. By Paul Pelliot. Paris: Geuthner. Vol. I, 1914; Vol. II, 1920.

It is somewhat disconcerting to have the task of reviewing a book of which only the pictures have yet appeared. Two portfolios, containing 128 plates, comprise this the first instalment of the reported investigations of the Mission Pelliot in Central Asia. The first portfolio (or volume) is prefaced with two short notices by M. Pelliot and a plan; but the plates bear no descriptive label beyond one identifying the grotto to which each belongs, and, until the publication of the text, the reader must possess himself in

patience for the author's commentary on and explanation of the scenes portrayed and the chronological order of their execution. That the completed work will be of the highest importance the author's distinguished reputation is sufficient warranty.

Meanwhile all can admire the technical excellence of the photographs reproduced and the intrinsic beauty of the designs; the student of Buddhist iconography can find plenty of problems to tackle; and the art critic can exercise his judgment in attempting to trace in true sequence the progress of Chinese religious painting through six centuries of its greatest splendour.

The itinerary of the Mission Pelliot took three years to complete. More than a third of that time, from February, 1907, to May, 1908, was spent at Tun-huang. It is common knowledge that this town and oasis on the edge of the desert of Lop has figured in the accounts of other explorations made during the previous thirty years; but the Mission Pelliot was the first to carry out a detailed and systematic examination of the frescoes and images existing in a series of grottoes, known as the Caves of the Thousand Buddhas, cut in the side of a cliff distant from the town nine miles to the south-east.

Since the beginning of its history some 2,000 years ago, Tun-huang has passed through many vicissitudes. As mentioned in chapter 123 of the Shih Chi, it formed part of the territory of the Ta Yüeh-chih till they were conquered and displaced by the Hsiung-nu in the middle of the second century B.C. A few years later the successful campaigns of the Emperor Wu 'Ti added it to the Chinese Empire. For a short while at the beginning of the fifth century it was the capital of the Western Liang. The Tibetans captured it towards the end of the eighth century, but soon it was regained by China. Some 500 years after that the great Mongol invasion swept over it, and within the last fifty years its inhabitants were decimated by the Mahomedan rebellion.

To the present day Tun-huang remains the westernmost outpost of China proper, standing as it does on the furthest edge of the projection of Kansu, where that province and Eastern Turkestan meet. Through it has always passed the great highway between China and the West, and hence it is that this small place figures so largely in Chinese history. Many great travellers are associated with Tun-huang: Chang Ch'ien, Fa Hsien, Hsüan Tsang, and Marco Polo are perhaps the best known to us. The shrines mentioned in the travels of the two last are doubtless those represented in the portfolios under review. Probably, of course, it is committing an anachronism to connect Chang Ch'ien with Tun-huang as a settlement of that name; for it was not colonized by Chinese till twenty-seven years after he started on his mission. But we learn from the Shih Chi that he set forth from Lung-hsi and crossed the territory of the Hsiung-nu, and therefore it seems likely that he followed the route subsequently used by the army under Li Kuang-li in 104 B.C. and by other expeditions about that time.

M. Pelliot's promised account of the history of the oasis apart from the grottoes will be looked forward to with keen interest. Enough has been said here to indicate the peculiar significance of Tun-huang as the meeting-place of Chinese and foreign cultures; indeed, through it lay the path of China's communication with all outside civilizations during many centuries of her early authentic history. Chinese, Greco-Indian, and Iranian elements are found mingled in the wonderful frescoes adorning the walls of its cave-temples; but the several elements have become welded together and sinicized, and here is to be seen an unrivalled array of Chinese Buddhist art at its zenith displayed through a less trammelled and more sympathetic medium than that used in the examples upon which our knowledge of Buddhist art under the Wei, T'ang, and Sung has hitherto had mainly to depend, apart from the paintings brought from the same place by Sir Aurel Stein. brush is par excellence the tool of Chinese artistic expression, and far transcends the sculptor's chisel.

I have hinted that Gandharan influence is visible in the frescoes of Tun-huang. The nimbus, figure drapery, and Apollo-like countenance that characterize the Gandharan school are all to be seen, though not to the exclusion of other foreign types. There is, for example, a version of Amitabha in essentially Indian form with bared right shoulder (plate 84) side by side with other scenes exhibiting pronounced Hellenistic features. The influence of Gandhara is a strong one; but the artists who decorated the caves were not The plastic may merely reproducers of a foreign tradition. be foreign, yet the religious inspiration is often Chinese, in so far as it arises from a form of Buddhism which underwent special development and elaboration in the land of its adoption. Thus a subject several times represented is Ching-t'u, the Sukhāvatī paradise presided over by O-mi-to (Amitābha). It is doubtful whether Amitābha appeared at all in the Gandhāran sculptures. The promise of a future life of bliss in the Pure Land or Western Paradise of O-mi-to is a Mahāyānist doctrine, though, as the author of Buddhist China has pointed out, some of its elements can be traced to Hinayanist origins. Visions called up by this development of Buddhism-a religion of salvation by faith -powerfully stimulated Chinese artists to lavish their genius on depicting the merciful compassion of a personal deity and the glories of the promised heaven accessible to all. He is shown surrounded by saints amid literal representations of those transcendent beauties and sensuous delights of his realm that are described with such wealth of detail and imagination in the Large and Small Sukhāvatī-vyūha and the Amitāyer-dhyāna sūtras. But even in this and in other subjects of devotional worship the artists have refrained in some particulars from repeating foreign Musicians play on instruments which, except the harp, are of ancient Chinese kinds, and architectural forms are almost entirely Chinese.

The copying of foreign models stops when the figures are not objects of actual worship. Thus episodes in the life of

Buddha are shown in frankly sinicized form. Lay scenes commemorating the donors of certain shrines provide not only magnificent examples of purely native art during this early period, but unique documents of peculiar archaeological value. Here, at any rate, we may find the national tradition untouched by outside influence.

It is satisfactory to learn from M. Pelliot that the subjects of the scenes and the dates of their execution are established by accompanying inscriptions. The publication of the completed account of the grottoes of Tun-huang will be an event of supreme importance to all students of Far Eastern art.

W. PERCEVAL YETTS.

SHORT NOTICES OF SOME RECENT BOOKS ON PERSIAN SUBJECTS

The Secretary of the R.A.S. having requested me to notice briefly the most important books connected with Persia which have recently come under my notice, I select the nine following—two in English, two in French, four in German, and one in Persian. Of these, four deal with literary topics, two with economics, and one with philosophy, while two are Festschrifts of miscellaneous contents. I shall consider them in this order.

I. LITERATURE

(1) Firdawsí and the Shúhnáma

Twenty-four years ago Professor Nöldeke contributed to Geiger and Kuhn's great encyclopædia of Persian philology and literature, the Grundriss der Iranischen Philologie, the article entitled "Das Iranische Nationalepos", which has ever since remained the last word on all matters connected with the Persian epic and its final expression, the Sháhnáma of Firdawsí. Although the lapse of nearly a quarter of a century has impaired neither the freshness nor the accuracy of this masterly monograph, and though few fresh materials except Hermann Zotenberg's edition and translation of

ath-Tha'álibí's account of the ancient kings of Persia 1 in his Kitábu'l-Ghurar were available, Professor Nöldeke, at an age when most scholars of so great a reputation are content to rest on their laurels, has entirely revised and rewritten it, with considerable additions and modifications, and the new edition, the preface to which was written in Karlsruhe last July, has now been published, by the aid of the Heidelberg Academy, at Berlin and Leipzig. On the special difficulties and discouragements surrounding the completion of this work, at which the author hints in his preface, it is needless to enlarge; they are patent to all who are acquainted with the circumstances, and do but increase our admiration for the indomitable courage and untiring devotion to learning which have triumphed over all obstacles and placed us all under a fresh obligation to one whose achievements are surpassed by no living Orientalist.

(2) Early Persian Poetry from the beginnings down to the time of Firdawsí

Professor A. V. Williams Jackson of Columbia University is well known to all students of Persian by his admirable work on Zoroaster, the Prophet of Ancient Iran, and by several accounts of his travels in Persia and the neighbouring countries in 1903, 1907, 1910, and 1918. The present work, published this year by the Macmillan Company, New York, comprises, besides prefatory matter, chapters, of which the first deals with "Persian Poetry of Ancient Days" (600 B.C. - A.D. 650), and the remainder with post-Islamic poetry from the dawn of the Persian Renaissance to Firdawsí. The author follows the late Dr. Ethé (of whose diligent compilations on the work of the early Persian poets he has made good use) in accepting as genuine the qasida said to have been composed by 'Abbas of Mery on the occasion of al-Ma'mun's visit to that city in A.D. 809, but the scepticism of Kazimirski in this matter still

¹ Paris, 1900.

seems to me to be justified. The verses ascribed to Hanzala of Bádghís on p. 19 are, on the other hand, almost certainly genuine, so that we may safely place the beginnings of post-Islamic Persian poetry at least as early as A.D. 850. regards Shahid of Balkh (pp. 24-6), there seems some reason for identifying him with a philosopher who, as we learn from the Fihrist and al-Qiftí's Ta'rikhu'l-Hukamú, became involved in a somewhat violent controversy with the great physician Abú Bakr Muhammad ibn Zakariyyá ar-Rází. Professor Williams Jackson has given fresh verse-translations of all the poems which he cites, some of which are very felicitous. This little volume (it comprises only 125 pages) forms an admirable introduction to the study of the older Persian poetry, and gains much by the author's familiarity with the ancient literature of Zoroastrian Persia, a realm too often closed to the student of the later language and literature.

(3) Jalálu'd-Dín Rúmí

The great mystical Mathnawí (Mathnawí-i-Ma'nawí) deserves the title of "the Qur'an in the Pahlawi (i.e. Persian) language" which the Persians have assigned to it; it is the most profound, if not the most beautiful, poem in Persian, and its author, the founder of the Order of Mevleví (Mawlawí) or so-called "Dancing Dervishes", is one of the greatest mystical poets of the world. The best extant biography of him and his predecessors and successors is the Manáqibu'l-'Árifín, composed in the first half of the fourteenth century of our era by Shamsu'd-Dín Almad Aflákí. This book remains unpublished, and MSS. are not very common: there are two in the British Museum, and another, besides a later abridgement, in the Library of the India Office.² The late Sir James Redhouse published an English translation of selected extracts from this work, entitled by him "Acts of the Adepts", as an introduction to his translation of Book i of the Mathrawi

¹ See Rieu's Persian Catalogue, pp. 344-5.

² See Ethé's Catalogue, cols. 257-60.

(Trübner, 1881), but since that time no further work seems to have been done on the book until M. Clément Huart conceived the happy idea of publishing a complete French translation of it made from a MS. in his own library transcribed in A.D. 1608. Of this translation the first volume, entitled Les Saints des Derviches Tourneurs, was published by Leroux of Paris in 1918. It contains the first three of the ten chapters into which the book is divided, including the longest and most important (chap. iii, pp. 59-375), dealing with Jalálu'd-Dín Rúmí himself. M. Huart has treated the book, as he himself says (p. iii), less from the point of view of history than from that of psychology, and he has prefixed to it a short but excellent table of the different psychic phenomena (dreams, premonitions, second sight, telepathy, etc.) mentioned in the course of the work, thus following the excellent precedent set by D. M. Macdonald in his luminous Religious Attitude and Life in Islim (Chicago, 1909). It is earnestly to be hoped that M. Huart may complete the work which he has undertaken.

(4) Shaykh Sa'di of Shiráz

To M. Henri Massé, Docteur es-Lettres et Chargé de Cours à la Faculté des Lettres (Alger), we are indebted for a copious and careful study of the most popular and widely read of all Persian writers entitled Essai sur le poète Saadi (Geuthner, Paris. 1919). The first chapter (pp. 3-102) deals with his life; the second (pp. 103-30) with his works and the printed edition of them published at Calcutta in 1791; and these two chapters constitute the first part of the book. The second consists of four chapters entitled respectively "l'Homme Social" (pp. 135-164), "l'Honnête Homme" (pp. 165-221), "l'Observation du Monde extérieur" (pp. 222-236), and "les Moyens d'expressions" (pp. 237-256), followed by a Conclusion (pp. 257-268), an excellent and most useful Bibliography (pp. iii-lii), and an appendix showing the indebtedness to Sa'di of European men of letters from La Fontaine onwards (pp. liii-lvii). This last, which contains matter that will be new to many Persians scholars, does not profess to be complete, but only to offer "isolated examples tending to prove Sa'di's fame in Europe". The whole book is very well done, showing industry, judgment, grasp, orderly method, and a sane and well-balanced criticism, and is one of the best monographs on a great Persian poet and writer which have been produced in recent years. It is hard to better Renan's summary of the qualities to which Sa'di owes his wide and enduring popularity, quoted on p. lvii of the Appendix: "Saadi est vraiment un des nôtres. Son inaltérable bon sens, le charme et l'esprit qui animent ses narrations, le ton de raillerie indulgente avec lequel il censure les vices et les travers de l'humanité, tous ces mérites, si rares en Orient, nous le rendent cher. On croit lire un moraliste latin on un railleur du xvie siècle."

II. Economics

From Berlin come the two following notable books, one in German and one in Persian, dealing with economic and incidentally with political conditions in Persia.

(5) Persien von der "Pénétration pacifique" zum "Protektorat": Urkunden und Tatsachen zur Geschichte der europaüschen "Pénétration pacifique" in Persien, 1860– 1919, von Wilhelm Litten (Berlin and Leipzig, 1920).

The author, as he informs us in his Introduction, had begun to prepare this book some six months before the outbreak of the War, the vicissitudes of which carried him from Tabríz by Mosul to Baghdád, thence back to Tihrán by way of Kirmánsháh, thence through Aleppo to Germany and the Western Front, where he was wounded on the Somme and brought as a prisoner of war to London, whence he presently found his way by exchange to his own country. Circumstances, he implicitly admits, have rendered the questions treated in his book of less immediate practical importance to his country than he hoped and anticipated when he began it, but they have not affected the objective value of a very

careful and systematic study of the concessions obtained and the commercial enterprises undertaken by the various European Powers in Persia during the last sixty years.

The book comprises three parts and a conclusion, preceded by a full table of contents and illustrated by twelve maps. The first part (pp. 2-222) treats of foreign undertakings, concessions, and investments in Persia, to wit, those of England (pp. 2-109); Russia (pp. 110-190); Greece (pp. 191-4); France (pp. 195-206); Belgium (pp. 207-214); other States (pp. 215-216), viz. Austria, Italy, Holland, Turkey, America, and Switzerland; and Germany (pp. 217-222). The second part (pp. 225-548) contains remarks on the political and economic situation in Persia; while the third (pp. 350-396) deals with the possibilities and prospects for German enterprises in that country. This last part (chs. 65-71) was already written in February, 1914, six months before the outbreak of war; two additional chapters (72 and 73), constituting the Schlusswort, were added after its conclusion. The first of these deals with Persian Nationalism, Persian Islám, and the protection of German rights in Persia; the second with Persian politics since the Armistice and the Anglo-Persian Agreement of August 9, 1919, the text of which, in English, with the correspondence connected therewith forms an Appendix. Herr Litten's book is the most important contribution to the economic history of Persia since the publication at Rome twenty years ago of Lorini's La Persia Economica contemporanea c la sua questione monetaria.

(6) Ganj-i-Sháyagán, by Sayyid Muḥammad 'Ali Jamál-záda (Káwa Press, Berlin, 1335/1916-17)

گنج شایگان یا اوضاع اقتصادی ایران باهتمام مخصوص آقای ستید محمّد علی جمال زاده (از سلسلهٔ انتشارات ادارهٔ "کاوه": برلین ۱۳۳۰)

This well-arranged and beautifully printed volume of more than 200 quarto pages is a good specimen of the modern practical handbooks which, under the pressure of fifteen agitated and eventful years, young Persia, no longer content with philosophical speculations and mystical reveries, is beginning to produce. In fifteen sections it deals with such matters as the physical geography of Persia, her commerce, imports, exports, customs, roads, transport, mines, arts and crafts, improvements (especially agriculture and forestry), new enterprises, expenditure, revenue, the Budget, coins, weights and measures, posts and telegraphs, and life and current prices in Tihrán. An appendix contains an account of Persian commerce during the years A.H. 1331-2 (A.D. 1913-14) and during the years of the War, and a history of some of Persia's treaties and agreements with Foreign Powers. A good index and several maps and tables complete a very useful and well-produced work.

III. PHILOSOPHY

(7) The Secrets of the Self (Asrár-i-Khudí) by Sheikh Muḥammad Iqbál, translated from the original Persian with Introduction and Notes by Reynold A. Nicholson, Litt.D., LL.D. (1920).

It is a sufficient testimony to the originality of the surprising philosophical doctrine embodied in this poem that Dr. Nicholson, the greatest living authority on the Súfí mysticism to which it stands in such violent antagonism, should have deemed it worth translating and explaining. Muhammad Iqbál came to Europe some fifteen years ago to pursue his philosophical studies at Cambridge and Munich, and in 1908 published his valuable dissertation on the development of metaphysics in Persia. He has since then evolved a philosophy of his own, which, as Dr. Nicholson says (p. x), "owes much to Nietzsche and Bergson" and very little to the Neo-Platonists and their Eastern successors. Yet it is by no means a Western philosophy, but rather a philosophical Pan-Islamism, designed to cure the ills of quietism, self-

suppression, and pantheism, which, according to the author's view, have emasculated the adherents of the once virile doctrine of the Arabian Prophet. "His message," says Dr. Nicholson, "is not for the Mohammedans of India alone, but for Moslems everywhere; accordingly he writes in Persian instead of Hindustani-a happy choice, for amongst educated Moslems there are many familiar with Persian literature, while the Persian language is singularly well adapted to express philosophical ideas in a style at once elevated and charming." The poem itself is modelled on the Mathnawi of Jalálu'd-Dín Rúmí, for whom, in spite of his mysticism and quietism, Muhammad Iqbal has a great admiration, though of Hafiz he uttered a harsh judgment (omitted in the second edition of the poem) which caused anger and consternation in many literary circles in India. The book is not only remarkable in itself, but may, as Dr. Nicholson implies, have far-reaching effects on Muslim thought and character, while the English prose rendering has all the grace and felicity which we are accustomed to expect from the translator.

IV. Two Festschrifts

In the spring of 1916 two great German Orientalists, Professors Nöldeke and Andreas, celebrated respectively their 80th and 70th birthdays, which in each case served as the occasion of a *Festschrift* in their honour produced by such of their colleagues and disciples as were not prevented by the calamities of those fateful days from contributing their tribute of respect.

(8) Festgabe für Theodor Nöldeke zum achtzigsten Geburtstage (Göttingen, den 2 Marz, 1916)

The contributors to this volume are F. C. Andreas ("Vier persische Etymologien"), C. H. Becker ("Das Reich der Ismaeliten im koptischem Danielbuch"), C. Bezold ("Abbā Gabra Manfas Qeddus"), I. Goldziher ("Über Ijmā'"), M. Lidzbarski ("Neue Götter"), E. Littmann ("Anredeformen in erweiterer Bedeutung"), and K. Sethe ("Spuren

der Perserherrschaft in der späteren ägyptischen Sprache"). The first and last articles are of especial interest to the student of Persian.

(9) Festschrift Friedrich Carl Andreas zur Vollendung des Siebzigsten Lebensjahres am 14 April, 1916

Fourteen scholars have contributed to this volume, and half a dozen of the articles are more or less directly connected with the languages or literature of Persia. Two (by Geiger and Lommel) are concerned with the Avesta; one (by Larsen), illustrated by two plates, with Scandinavian imitations of Sásánian designs in tapestry; one (by A. Bertholet) on the question of the relation between Jewish and Persian beliefs concerning the Resurrection; one (by Christensen) on the traces of the legend of Manu in the Iranian national epic; and one (by Enno Littmann) on the legend of the angels Hárút and Márút so often met with in Persian literature. The volume concludes (pp. 137–42) with a brief but valuable article entitled "Beiträge zu einer Andreas Bibliographie", by Johan Eyser, extending over the years 1859–1916.

E. G. BROWNE.

The Kurmanji Grammar by Major E. B. Soane, C.B.E., seems likely to be of great value to students, but unfortunately there appears to be no Englishman save the author who is sufficiently conversant with the subject to review the book.

OBITUARY NOTICE

James Drummond Anderson

WITHIN the last few months this Society has lost some of its most valued members. In our July number we mourned the loss of our Honorary Treasurer, Mr. Kennedy; in the October number that of one of our Vice-Presidents, Sir Charles Lyall; and now, again, it has to record the death, on the 24th November, 1920, less than a fortnight after the completion of his 68th year, of one of the members of its Council, Dr. Anderson.

The son of a doctor in the service of the East India Company, he was born in Calcutta, and was sent home, later than is now usual, at the age of 7. As was natural, he could at that time speak Bengali fluently, and that was, no doubt, the main reason for the intimate knowledge of that language possessed by him in later years. He was educated at Cheltenham and Rugby, and passed the Indian Civil Service examination in 1873, obtaining the highest marks among all the candidates for his English essay-a foretoken of the limpid English style of which in later years he was a master. His early service was spent in Bengal, but in 1880 he was transferred to Assam, where he passed through the various grades of District work, and also acted as Inspector-General of Police and, for a year, as an Assistant Secretary to the Chief Commissioner. In 1894 he returned to Bengal and served first as Collector and then as Commissioner of Chittagong, whence he returned to England for good in 1898, retiring in 1900. He was appointed teacher of Bengali at Cambridge in 1907, in which post he continued till his death, being given the honorary degree of M.A. in 1909, and later proceeding to the higher degree of Litt.D.

Besides being a master of more than one Oriental language, he was an excellent French scholar, had studied at the Paris University, and had even lectured in French at the Institute. His learning and charm of manner in no small way helped to strengthen that Entente between English and French Orientalists which has been lately so happily cemented by the joint meetings of the two Asiatic Societies in London and Paris.

We have seen that nearly the whole of his Indian official career was devoted to the work of a District Officer, a position which of all others gives the fullest opportunities for learning to understand and appreciate the people amid whom a man's lot may be cast. In Anderson's case this resulted in a series of works of great value on the customs and languages of the Tibeto-Burman inhabitants of Assam. In 1885 there appeared what he modestly called A Short List of Words of the Hill Tippera Language, which was really an excellent comparative vocabulary of that form of speech and of Lushei and Bodo. This was followed, ten years later, by his best-known work, a delightful Collection of Kachārī Folktales and Rhymes (1895), and, in the following year, by his Vocabulary of the almost unknown Aka language.

But his greatest affection was for the tongue he had learned in his childhood. After his return from Assam to Bengal he brought out, in 1897, an admirable collection of proverbs and sayings in the Chittagong dialect of Bengali, and all his subsequent writings on Oriental forms of speech were devoted to that language.

He became a member of this Society in the same year that he went to Cambridge, and since then the pages of our Journal have been enriched by many contributions on difficult points of Bengali grammar, idiom, and prosody. He kept up a frequent correspondence with the literary circle in Bengal,

¹ Some Chittagong Proverbs, compiled as an example of the dialect of the Chittagong District (Calcutta, 1897).

of which Sir Rabindranath Tagore is an illustrious member, and took an active part in revealing to English readers of the *Times*, the *Spectator*, and other newspapers of this country the merits, and in justly criticizing the defects, of modern Bengali writings. Conversely, by his contributions to the *Englishman*, the *Pioneer*, the *Civil and Military Gazette*, and other Anglo-India periodicals, he helped to keep India in touch with the English and French points of view in regard to Indian subjects.

In 1913 he wrote for the Cambridge Press a short work on Indian ethnology, entitled *The People of India*, and a few months before his death he inaugurated the Cambridge Guides to modern languages with his *Manual of the Bengali Language*.¹ No work illustrates his mastery of this difficult form of speech more than the latter. Previous writers had founded their accounts on the works of their predecessors, each adding his own additions and corrections. But Anderson broke entirely new ground. He took the language as he found it in modern literature, and, without regard to theories of what Bengali ought to be, he described it as it is, with most illuminating results.

His home in Cambridge was a social centre where Indians and Europeans met on common ground and learned much from each other. Of many of the former he gained the warmest and truest affection. As one of them wrote to me on hearing of the news of his death, "his gentleness, sympathy, and kindness I shall never forget, and I do not know how to express. my feelings of respect and gratitude for him."

The pages of a learned journal are hardly the place for an estimate of Anderson's personal character. But one who had the privilege of his friendship for many years may be allowed to remind its readers of qualities familiar to fellow-members of Council—of his charming, unselfish character, and of familiarity with his subjects, combined with a modesty too

¹ Reviewed on pp. 615 ff. of the JRAS. for October, 1920.

great to allow it to be appreciated by those who were less intimate. In a letter to the *Spectator* ¹ his old comrade Mr. Ritchie wrote: "At heart he was the most humorous, the most right-thinking, the most affectionate nature conceivable"; and to these words all who knew him will give the heartiest assent.

G. A. GRIERSON.

The Society has just lost one of its oldest members in the death of Dr. Codrington, Hon. Vice-President. An obituary notice will appear in the April Journal.

¹ December 4, 1920.

NOTES OF THE QUARTER

(October-December, 1920)

The Council has elected Sir Henry Howorth as Vice-President in place of the late Sir Charles Lyall, and Dr. Gaster as the fourth Vice-President.

Mr. C. O. Blagden was elected Member of Council in place of Mr. Philby, who resigned on taking up an appointment in Mesopotamia, and Mr. W. P. Yetts in place of the late Dr. Anderson. The following 77 candidates were elected Members of the Society:—

Mr. W. Foxwell Albright, Ph.D. Major C. H. Armbuuster, M.A., C.B.E.

Mr. F. Anderson.

Rai Sahib B. N. Bannerjee.

Mr. D. K. Bhardvaj, B.A.

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Mr. A. K. Banerji, M.A., B.L.

Rao Bahadur S. T. Bhandara.

Mr. P. Basu.

Mr. H. Well-Blundell, M.A.

Mr. H. N. Bushia, B.A.

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Mr. Basanta K. Chatterjea.

Mr. G. R. Driver, M.A.

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Babu Gokulnath Dhar, B.A.

Mr. R. Dayal, M.A., M.O.L.

Mr. A. B. Doniach.

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Babu K. M. Gupta.

Mr. K. P. Guru.

Rev. G. S. Hitchcock, D.D., etc.

Mr. Md. Ghulam Hassan.

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Mr. N. G. Majumdar.

Mr. D. B. B. Mudalier.

Pandit Lakshmi Misra.

Baba N. C. Nandi,

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JOURNAL OF THE ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY 1921

PART II.—APRIL

Babylonian and Hebrew Musical Terms

(Paper read at the Oxford Folk Lore Society)
By Professor S. LANGDON, M.A., Oxford

N the introduction to my Sumerian and Babylonian Psalms was derived, from early rubrics attached to Sumerian songs, the principle that the Sumerians classified their psalms and liturgical services chiefly by the names of the instruments employed in accompaniments. Babylonians and the Assyrians adopted Sumerian chants for their own sacred music, and throughout the history of Sumerian, Babylonian, and Assyrian temple music each psalm and liturgy was usually said to the accompaniment of a single instrument. early Sumerian psalms usually have the title eršemma or melody to the flute. But the drum, balag, Syriac pelagga, and the kettledrum, liles, Babylonian lilissu, were freely employed in sacred music. The harp was also employed in early Sumer, as we know from a monument of Lagash, but the Sumerian and Babylonian name of the harp is The Sumerians classified their chants by the unknown. names of these instruments. I wish to call attention briefly to a remarkable catalogue of Assyrian psalms, liturgies, and popular songs which has been found at

¹ The *lilissu* was a kettledrum. The meaning is determined by a drawing of this instrument on a Babylonian tablet, Revue d'Assyriologie, xiv, 145, reverse.

Assur and recently published by Ebeling, Religiose Keilschrifttexte aus Assur, No. 158. This large tablet in eight columns begins by giving lists of Semitic liturgical series which were sung. Column iii of the obverse (which is fragmentary) continues with a list of Sumerian liturgies which are called tegû or flute songs. Each liturgy is called a series (iškaratu) and contains several songs (zamaru). For example, the summary of one section has "three series and 15 songs", that is each liturgy has on an average five psalms or melodies.\footnote{1} Most of the great liturgies which I have edited in my Sumerian and Babylonian Psalms, Sumerian Liturgical Texts, Sumerian Liturgies and Psalms, and Babylonian Liturgies contain a much larger number of melodies, some attaining the high number of twenty-five.

The catalogue then gives the titles of five Sumerian psalms which comprise one liturgy (iltāt iškaratu).² The titles of these five psalms are as follows ³:—

- Col. iii, 32. a-an-še 4 me-zi-da 5 gu-num-a-ni 6
 Why are the steadfast rituals changed?
 - 33. en-gal an-ki-eš maj sag-gi-in-di-ib
 Great lord who in heaven and earth majestically advances.
- 1 The titles of the liturgies sung to the flute in col. iii, 1-31, are not complete.
 - ² Obv. iii, 37.
- 3 The transcription of the Sumerian is given in the list at the end of my Sumerian Grammar. I have changed my system with reference to a few signs for the sake of simplicity.

 The sake of simplicity.

 The by gir, by gir, by kur, and by kur. A large number of new values now known since the list was prepared will be dealt with in the second edition.
- ⁴ Cf. a-na-šú, Sumerian Liturgies and Psalms, 251, 27; a-na-úš-ám, why is it? Keiser, Documents of the Ur Dynasty, 116, 7. See Sumerian Grammar, p. 111.
- ⁵ parşu kînu, Meek, No. 75, 7, in BA. x. Cf. Liturgies and Psalms, 263, 15.
- ⁶ Postfixed conjugation in an interrogative sentence. See ibid. 294, n. 9, gu for $k\acute{u}r = nak\ddot{u}ru$.

- Col. iii, 34. en-gal maġ-ġi-ib¹ di-im-gi-ir-e-ne Great lord magnifier of the gods.
 - 35. en na-an²-su-ul-lc ga³-li-im si-ga
 Lord of power full of devastation.
 - 36. an-nu u-ru-un-gal 4 di-im-gi-ir-e-ne Anu high priest of the gods.

These five songs which composed a liturgy are called "Sumerian a-da-pa", that is Sumerian melodies for the instrument adapa, probably tambourine. An antiphon in a liturgy to Libit-Ishtar is called an a-da-ap to the god Anu, and the entire liturgy is called an a-da-ap to Anu in the final rubric. A similar liturgy in the cult of the deified Bur-Sin is also described as an a-da-ap to Anu. According to K. 4547, which restores V Raw. 32 B 61, uruda-da-pad = adapu = mazû. Adapu is then a loan-word from adapad and an instrument with copper (urud) in its composition. Mazû, another name for this instrument, is a loan-word from me-zi = mesû, manzû. Once it has the determinative for leather, and it is associated with the flute and drum. The evidence points to an instrument of percussion, probably tambourine.

The titles of four Sumerian liturgies follow, but the

¹ Read mag-ti-ib (?).

² For nam. m > n before a sibilant.

³ ga for ga, which supports my statement that Sumerian possessed a velar sonant spirant ga; see Sumerian Grammar, § 38.

⁴ Probably the original of uru-gal = uriyallu, great brother, a kind of priest; cf. Meissner, SAI. 4588. This melody is employed in a liturgy to the deified king Libit-Ishtar; see PSBA. 1918, 74, 9, where read ú-ru-yal.

⁵ PSBA. 1918, 74, 8. ⁶ Ibid.,

⁶ Ibid., p. 79, 7.

⁷ Radau, Sumerian Hymns and Proyers to NIN-IB, p. 54, 38.

⁸ This passage was ignored by Frank and Holma in their discussions of the *meşu* instrument; see ZA. 28, 159. Delitzsch cites K. 4547 on p. 27 of his *Handwörterbuch*.

⁹ Langdon, Babylonian Liturgies, 79, 17.

¹⁰ Brünnow, No. 8907.

¹¹ Reisner, SBH. 72, R. 10.

¹² Langdon, SBP. 70, 15. manzh à lilisi, tambourine and kettledrum, Shurpu, iii, 79, restored from Ebeling, Religiöse Texte, No. 41, 34.

rubric which contained the name of the instrument on which they were accompanied is broken away; these four titles are well preserved, and I give a rendering of them here:—

- Col. iii, 40. lu-gal dingir za-gi-na ta-al lu ra-aṣ-ṣe¹
 O king, bright god, wide-eared, lord of wisdom (?)
 - en-ni ú-šum-gal di-im-gi-ir-e-ne
 O lord, champion of the gods.
 - 42. nu-un-gal silim-rāš-še lu ga-la-αk-ki²
 O sage, counsellor of prosperity (?), mighty lord.
 - 43. egi sukkal gal-an-zu an-na me-e eš-še
 Prince, wise messenger of heaven, adviser of
 decrees.

Line 44 is Semitic and is entered in the catalogue as the title of a melody. pa-ki-id ma-har ilu a-lid ilāni A-nun-na-ki ra-bu-ú-[ti], "He that watches before the divine begetter of the gods, the mighty Anunnaki."

Col. i of the reverse, which is fragmentary, contains a summary of various kinds of prayer, and ballads. This summary richly illuminates the rubrics of Babylonian and Hebrew liturgy.

The first legible section gave a number of songs for skilled workmen (um-ma-ni), by which the scribe probably refers to songs popular among craftsmen, not pertaining to the temple services. Then follows a number of is-kar or series called maru mara imni, "Son has recounted to son," by which the various series of wisdom literature are probably indicated. Then a number of series for the mur-ta-mi, the lover. Series of love-songs were as yet unknown. The last entry in this section has "a series for the shepherd, containing five songs (ditto = zamāru) of the shepherd". The three series of songs of

¹ lu rašše = amel purussî (?).

² For kalaggi = dannu (?).

wisdom, of love, and the shepherd songs are described as akkadû, Akkadian, that is Semitic. From this point the text runs as follows:—

REV.

- Col. i, 7. $n\alpha(?)$ -am-bal¹ e-iji šu-me-ru, Meditation² on education (?) in Sumerian.
 - 8. te-gu-ú¹ šu-me-ru, song to the reed flute in Sumerian.
 - 9. (So many) 1 Sumerian songs.
 - 10. X + 2 Semitic songs.
 - 11. X + 4 za-ma-ru a-da-pu (pl.), songs to the tan:bourine.
 - 12. [...1] sir-gid-da-meš³ šu-me-ru, (so many) songs to the long flute (?) in Sumerian.
 - 13. [. . . 1] sirdingir-gal-la-šúšu-me-ru, (so many) songs for the great gods in Sumerian.
 - 14. 3 ši-id ru ša ib-bu-be 4 Akkad-(ki), three recitations to the pipe in Semitic.
 - 15. 2 šidru ša pi-i-te Akkad-(ki), two recitations tions to the pitu in Semitic.

In lines 14 and 15 occurs for the first time the musical term *sidru*, which is clearly not the word *sitru*, "writing." The word occurs on Rev. iv, 16, at the end of a list of Semitic prayers apparently addressed to Ea the god of incantation. This is the word which occurs in the prayer, IV R. 54, 34, *si-id-ru *sa *iuE-a li*sap*ii*, libbukka, "May the *sidru* of the god Ea cause thy heart to repose." From the same root comes the word ma*sduru*, a kind of prayer,

¹ The number of these compositions is broken away at the left of the tablet.

² The rubric bal-bal occurs at the end of several Sumerian psalms, Langdon, Babylonian Liturgies, p. 103, 55; PSBA. 1918, 82, 41; 85, 23; and an unpublished Nippur text (4589) has the rubric bal-bal-e d-Innini-kam, a meditation of Innini.

³ Since giš-sir means mûlilu, wood flute, it is probable that sir-gid means long flute. The rubric occurs in Sumerian Liturgical Texts, 138, 29; 140, 54, and at the end of Ni. 11394 (unpublished).

Usually written imbubu, Syriac abbūbā.

synonym of ummisallú, Gray, Šamaš Religious Texts, No. 1, col. iii, 22.1 The instrument pitu occurs here for the first time. The word is probably derived from השנה, cry, wail. See also l. 48.

REV.

- Col. i, 16. 5 pa-a-ru 2 ak-ka-du-ú, five paru in Semitic.
 - 17. 1 šu-me-ru, one Sumerian (song).
 - 18. 10 ak-ka-du-ú, ten Semitic (songs).
 - 19. naphar 11 za-mar še-e-ri,³ altogether eleven songs as elegies.
 - 20. 11 za-mar a-la-li Akkad-(ki), eleven songs as hymns in Semitic.
 - 21. 9 šu-me-ru.
 - 22. $1 ak-ka-du-\acute{u}$.
 - 23. naphar 10 za-mar d. Nin-giš-zi-da.

 Nine Sumerian songs and one Semitic song, altogether ten songs to Ningišzida.⁵
- ¹ The passage was not comprehended by Jensen, Texte zur assyrischhabylouische Religion, p. 102. For unmisulla, a kind of recitation, see
 also Ebeling, Religiöse Texte, No. 44, Rev. 14, eme-sal-meš, with kiduda
 recitations. The word eme-sal is commonly interpreted by woman's
 tongue, Zimmern in ZA. 30, 204 ff., note on Eb. 44, R. 14. Zimmern
 has, however, suggested that sal may mean silîtu, prayer, and the root
 sil has the meaning to sing, cry out; eme-sal = unmisalla may possibly
 mean "tongue of prayer".
 - ² Cf. 1. 33 pu-u ru, same word.
- ³ Hebrew "לשיר", an ode of joy and praise in Hebrew and always connected with music. The Sumerian term is ki-sub-yú, Eb. 100, 5, usually a song of sorrow, elegy, in the Sumerian liturgies. Zamar šēri corresponds precisely to the Hebrew mizmōr šir in the titles to certain Psalms (cf. Psalms lxvii and lxviii).
- Probably identical with alālu, a hymn of praise, V Raw. 6, 102; King, Boundary Stones, p. 17, vi, 6; Thureau-Dangin, Sargon, 207, alālu tābu, a sweet song, and the equivalent of the Hebrew rubric in the heading of Psalm cxlv. On the other hand, from the same root alālu or elēlu = יוֹרָנוֹ , to sing a song of joy, is derived a word alālu, a long wooden flute. Giš-gidim, giš-gi-di = alalū, Meissner, SAI. 5521, and Berlin Assur text, 2559, iv, 44 (unpublished). See below, line 31.
- 5 Ningišzida, a vegetation deity and form of Tammuz, is not otherwise known as the subject of liturgical compositions. At present none of these ten compositions has been recovered.

REV.

- Col. i, 24. 12 za-mar šurri ak-ku-du-ú twelve songs of the king in Semitic.¹
 - (25. 8 šu-me-ru.
 - $26. \quad 3 \quad ak-ka-du.$
 - (27. naphar 11 za-mar tuš-gu-ú (pl.).²
 Altogether eleven songs as penitential psalms.

The above passage proves that the sigú, tušgú, teškú, or penitential psalms, were chiefly bilingual, and, in fact, nearly all of the known psalms of this class are bilinguals, usually known by their Sumerian title eršagjunga. Zimmern, in his Busspsalmen, included two Semitic prayers, IV R. 54 No. 1 and 59 No. 2, and he is justified by this entry in the Assur catalogue. For a Semitic sigú, see also IV R. 54, B 35. The Hebrew rubric siggajōn

¹ A number of these royal hymns to deities are known. A prayer of Ašurnasirpal to Ishtar, ZA v, 66-80 = Tammuz and Ishtar, 65-9. A hymn of the same king to Ishtar, Ebeling, Religiose Texte, 107 = Ebeling, Quellen zur Kenntnis der Babylonischen Religion, i, 58-62. Two bilingual hymns of Tukulti-Ninurta, Ebeling, Nos. 128, 129 = Ebeling, Quellen, i, 62-73. The Semitic version is probably fundamental, and these two tablets are to be classified as Semitic songs of a king. A hymn of Nebuchadnezzar II to Nebo, PSBA. 1898, 154-62, edited by S. A. Strong, translated also by Jastrow, Religion, i, 510, and by Zimmern, Der Alte Orient, vii³, 8-9 (only lines 9-20 of reverse). A hymn of Nebuchadnezzar I to Marduk on his victory over the Elamites, Hehn, BA. v, 326-9, and a similar hymn, CT. 13, 48 = Winckler, Forschungen, i, 542. A hymn to Nana by Sargon, Craig, RT. 54. Here belong probably the hymns of dedication of Asurbanipal; see Streck, Assurbanipal, ii, 276-86 = Craig, RT. 10-13; Streck, ibid. 287-93 = Craig, RT. ii, 1-2; Streck, ibid. 293-303 = Craig, RT. 76-9; Streck, ibid. 343-51 = Craig, RT. 5-6. See also Jensen, KB. vi², 136-41, who mentions none of his predecessors (Strong, Pinckert, Martin, Zimmern; see Streck, ibid. i, p. ixi). The Catalogue of Assur is earlier than the reign of Asurbanipal, and consequent'y these twelve hymns must refer to the older Babylonian and Assyrian kings.

² The titles of these eleven $tu\check{s}g\mathring{u}$ songs were given at the top of Rev. iii. This word occurs as $te\check{s}$ -ku-u on K. 2030a, Obv. 13 (in press) = K. 11190 (CT. 19, 39), 3, $akkil = ikkillum \check{s}a \, s\check{e}ri: te\check{s}$ -ku-u, wailing of the plain, i.e. lower world, i.e. the Tammuz wailings. K. 2030a, Rev. 23-5, has Sum. il- $d\mathring{u}g$ -ga and $g\mathring{u}$ - $d\mathring{u}\mathring{b} = te\check{s}k\mathring{u}$, lamentation. The form $tu\check{s}g\mathring{u}$ from $\check{s}ag\mathring{u}$, to lament, is original, and has the same sense as the more ordinary $\check{s}ig\mathring{u}$, the Sumerian $er\check{s}ag\mathring{u}uga$, penitential psalm.

is a loan-word from sigû, and likewise denotes a liturgical penitential psalm as the contents of Psalm vii prove. In Babylonia these psalms were certainly accompanied by music and liturgical formality. They possessed more formal character than the ordinary private prayers, and hence they are sung in Sumerian ordinarily.

28. 5 kir ¹-ri-tu ak-ka-du-ú. Five festal songs in Semitic.

The titles of these songs are given on Rev. iii, 6-10:-

- hu-di-i² be-li-it-ni šu-li-li.
 Rejoice, O our lady and make song.
- 7. e-ir-ti * im-ki-ti am-ma-rat * nišé.
 O watchful wise one, overseer of peoples.
- 8. ra-šu-ub-tu i-na ilāni a-na-ku.
 Terrible one among the gods am I.
- su-ú-kα α-ba-'α-ma šittâ zikrête ú-ta.
 I entered a street and espied two hierodules.
- 10. ra-šu-ub-tu i-na ilāni u-na-ku.

The title is identical with that of the song in line 8,

¹ Var. Rev. iii, 11, ki-ir-ri-e-tu. On kirêtu, kirrêtu, feast, from to invite to a feast, hence the "Invitation", see Landsberger, Der Kultische Kalendar, 14. Usually of a religious feast, RA. 12, 81, 28. A synonym is mudulu, Yale Vocabulary, 185, ŠĖŠ (adkin) = mu-du-lu: ki-ri-e-tū, var. K. 8284 kir-ri-e-tu. Mudulu is clearly connected with dalālu, to serve, dullu, religious service. Mudulu, religious service, feast, occurs also in Legrain, Le Temps des Rois d'Ur, 116, 2; 117, 6, sacrifices of sheep for the mudulum and šir-tu. Sheep are called the sú-dūq, fixed offering of the mudulu, 356, 2; širtu, song service, is the cognate of Hebrew הייש, song, ballad. Note also Legrain, ibid. 322, 1, fat rams for the šir naķ me, song service of the pouring of water, that is, the libations for the souls of the dead. See also ibid. 323, 9; 341, 9; CT. 32, 16, i, 6, and Landsberger, Der Kultische Kalendar, 31, n. 2.

² Cf. Eb. 144, Rev. 1.

^{*} E'irtu, from III to be wakeful? $evir^* > evu$, participle? The root occurs in Eb. 58, R. 15, ana e-ri u salli, for the waking and the sleeping. As verb eratina, ye are watching, ibid., l. 13. For the adj. fem. pl. evil, see l. 12. A reading enitu = entu, lady, is hardly possible.

⁴ Ammartu; cf. the title of Ishtar ammarat kal nišė, Eb. 158, obv. i, 26, and ii, 30, am-ma-ra-ta. The cognate at-mar-ti **luIgigi* seems to indicate a root amāru, to see, hence the observer, the overseer.

and consequently two different songs began with the same line. These five festal songs are all connected with the worship of Ishtar as patroness of love and harlotry.

29. 2 ga-an-git-tu (pl.) ki-min. Two (songs to the) long reed ¹ in Semitic.

Rev. iii, 12 f., has the titles of two Semitic songs on the long reed flute:—

da-i-iš kibrati a-šu-ú 2 ka-lu álāni.

He that treadeth out the regions, saviour (?) of all cities.

ga-uš-ra ila šar-ra lu-uz-za-mu-ur i-la da-ap-na.

The strong god, the king, will I sing of, even the conquering god.

Perhaps it can be inferred from these two titles that songs sung to "the long reed" were of an heroic character.

- 30. 2 nu-ú-ru ki-min. Two songs for youths 3 in Semitic.
- Rev. iii, 16 f., has the titles of these two songs for youths:—
 - 16. ša-a-ar napiš 4 buraši la-a te-zi-ni.

 The zephyr of the scent of the pine hast thou not smelled.
 - 17. ma-an-nu bél isuelippi ma-an-nu bél isumagurri. Who is the master of the ship? Who is the master of the skiff?
- ¹ Gangiṭṭu is the loan-word from $GI(\underline{kan})$ -gid, which is also rendered by $m\bar{a}/iu$, flute. The Sumerian word for reed was gi(n) and gan, whence the loan-word kanu.
- ² Probably from a hitherto undentified root in Assyrian אישור, Hebrew איים.
- אָבֶר sprobably connected with the verb na'aru, Hebrew נְּעָרָּרִים, cry, shriek, whence נְּעָרָרִים, youthfulness. See the references to this root in Assyrian in Babylonian Liturgies, p. xxvii. The Sumerian value nar of the sign LUL = naru, zammeru, singer, is a Semitic loan-word. See RA. 14, 84, 12 and nar-yal = na-ar-yallûm, chief singer, Poebel, PBS. v, 141, 8.
- ⁴ Cf. tâbūtu illaku šū na-pi-šu, they burn sweet things of good odour, Zimmern, Zum Babylouischen Neujahrfest, p. 141, 8. See also nipšu, Muss-Arnolt, Lexicon, 711.

These two titles indicate popular folk-songs, and it is perhaps legitimate to infer that they were described as songs of youth in a literal sense and not because they were sung in the soprano voice of youths.

31. 2 e-li-lu šad-ru-tu ki-min. Two hymns of recitation in Semitic.

The first lines of these two šadrūtu hymns are given on Rev. iii, 19 f.:—

- Rev. iii, 19. *ši-it-tu* ² at-la-ki ma-a-ra lu-ti-ir.³ Come sleep, a son may I embrace.
 - a-šap-pa-ar a-na marat ti-e-me-ia.
 I will send unto the daughter of my choice.

It may be inferred from these lines that elilu šadrūtu was applied to ballads of love.

32. 2 in-hu ki-min. Two lamentations in Semitic.

The first lines of these two inhu songs occur on Rev. iii, 22 f.:—

- Rev. iii, 21. ilat Ašdar 4 šar-rat nišė ra-'-um-tu. Ishtar queen of peoples, the lofty.
 - 22. **lat A šdar ma-an-nu ba-lu-uk-ki be-li-ti.

 1shtar who, if thou wert not, would be my queen?
- ¹ Šadrutu is probably the true reading, not nadrutu or kurrutu, and from the same root as šidru and mašdaru discussed above, p. 6. The verb šadāru, which I take to mean "recite in a monotone", is otherwise unknown and has no Semitic cognate. A root šadāru, to command, is not proven for Assyrian, but cf. aššum mimma šudduru, ZK. ii, 83, 12.
- ² Or šeţu, negligence, then the result of negligence, trouble. Cf. K. 8396 in Bezold's Catalogue, ukattimanni šit-tu, trouble has covered me. In case atlaki (cf. iv, R. 56, i, 15; Eb. No. 96, Rev. 26, labirûta itallak, go unto decay) means "go away", šitu, disgrace, trouble, must be assumed here. On the other hand, if atlaki means "come", šitu, sleep, is certain. Cf. Eb. 58, Rev. 36, atlak ana Ekur, come unto Ekur. In either case šittu is personified, and there is one example of šitu, trouble, personified in Maķlu, iii, 184.
- ³ The meaning of this line is obscure and will remain so until the text itself is recovered. For *māru* in the sense of beloved, or man, see below on Rev. ii, 48.
 - 4 This title of Ishtar usually refers to her as the planet Venus.

The titles of both of these prayers recall the appeal made in tears by Ašurbanipal to the Lady of Arbela, Streck, Assurbanipal, 112, 30-114, 46 = 190, 11-22. See also the ritual in Eb. 42, Obv. 29, inhi-šu unnah, "he shall sob his lamentation."

33. 5 pu-ú-ru ki-min, five púru in Semitic.

These five pâru (cf. five pâru in Semitic, above l. 16) are entered by titles on Rev. iii, 25-9:—

REV.

- iii, 25. ša-a-ma-ri-tu¹ tu-te-e tu-te-e-ma.
 O raging one, thou discernest, thou discernest.
 - 26. it-lu is-tu a-mu-ra-[ka?].
 O valiant one, since I behold thee (?).
 - 26. šur-bu-ta a-na nišė a-za-am-mu-[ur]. Of her the magnified one will I sing unto the peoples.
 - 27. zi-il-lu-lu? ša nišė a-[dal-lal?].

 The defence of the people, will I praise (?).
 - 28. i-na šu-bat EN-? i-za-mu-ra []. In the abode of . . . will he sing . . .
- 34. 2 ilat gu-ša-a-tu³ ki-min. Two songs to the goddess Gušātu in Semitic.

The titles of these two songs to the war goddess were given on the Rev. iii, 31 f., both beginning ilatgu-ša-ia.

¹ Cf. šumaritu, Obv. ii, 21.

² For sillulu cf. Kedschrifttexte aus Boghazkoi, i, 42, 1i, 6, á-bad = zillulu in a section with sillu. See also Weidner, Studien zur Hethitischen Sprachwissenschaft, p. 63.

³ Gu-še-e-a, gù-ša-ja is a corruption of gù-de-a, cry, shout, and a title of Ishtar, ša tanûķāti; see Tammuz and Ishtar, p. 113, n. 1, and RA. 13, 107, n. 10. Hence the Semiticized title gušatu, i.e. Ishtar, the moaning goddess, the loud crying, as queen of battle. A variant is A-gu-še-e-a, who summons to conflict, BA. iii, 287, 11. In a long hymn to Ishtar as goddess of battle she is called Saltu, "Hostility," and Agušaja, "The loud crying," Scheil and Zimmern, RA. 15, 159-82.

35. 1 a-ra-aḥ-ḥu ¹ šu-me-ru. One song Araḥḫu in Sumerian.

This rubric, like the gušatu or gušea songs, derives its name from the first word of a class of songs. Sumerian araġ, which began all songs of this class, seems to have meant "storehouse".

- 36. kat-ta-ni-du-ù ² ki-min. One (song) to the "one string", in Sumerian.
- 37. 2 ši-ķa-tu³ šu-me-ru. Two songs to the šiķatu (?) in Sumerian.
- 38. 2 ši-ša-tu A[kkad-ki]. Two songs to the instrument of six strings in Semitic.

The Babylonians have the peculiarity of employing the ordinal when naming an instrument from the number of its strings. That is certainly due to the fact that each string is free as on the lyre and harp and produces only one note, and the compass of the instrument corresponds to the number of the strings. An instrument of six strings has only six notes or tone intervals, hence it would be called the instrument of the sixths. instrument of three strings or three notes would have been named šuššan, the Babylonian word for one-third, derived from Sumerian sus, one-sixth, and the Semitic dual ending an, literally "two-sixths". The Babylonian instrument of three notes or the šuššan, is probably the curious pipe fashioned in the form of an ox head and found at Babylon. A drawing will be found on p. 76 of Carl Engel's The Music of the Most Ancient Nations.5

¹ A word arabbu, storehouse, syn. $na\check{s}paku$, and probably loan-word from $[a-ra-]a\acute{g}=E-U\check{S}-GID-DA$, is known from Poebel, PBS. v, 106, iv, 11.

² Uncertain. The word is here derived on the analogy of akaridu, from kattan, thin string (?), and êdu, one. Read šutanidû?

³ Name of an instrument? Or šiķķatu, triumph, victory, songs of victory?

^{*} This is the ordinary word for "one-third", but the Semitic word formed regularly as a katul ordinal occurs, šaluštu, šaluš.

Found by Captain Willock at Barsippa.

When blown open the pipe sounds the note G, when one of the upper holes is stopped the note E is produced, and when both upper holes is closed the note C is The instrument carries the three notes obtained. C, E, G or the majors of the octave C, and hence could be designated as the instrument of thirds. Šuššan passed into Hebrew as sosan and sūšan, a word which occurs in the musical rubrics of four psalms. The previous interpretation of this word by the Rabbis who saw in it the Semitic word sūsan. "lily," and who took it as the key-word to an old song, and Haupt's suggestion that it means "instrument of Susa" are certainly erroneous. Rabbi Raschi held that sūšan was an instrument and he was right in that respect only. The rubric of Psalm xlv has "For liturgical service upon instruments of thirds (al šošannim) for the sons of Qorah, a maskil as an ode to love". Psalm lxix has the rubric, "For liturgical service upon instruments of thirds, by David." Psalm Ix has the rubric, "For liturgical service upon the instrument of thirds, according to the rule of the miktam, by David to teach." Psalm lxxx has, "For liturgical service upon instruments of thirds according to the rule of Asaph, a psalm."

The same principle obtains in case of the eight-stringed or eight-note instrument in the rubrics of Psalms vi and xii, "For liturgical service with stringed instruments upon the instrument of eighths," or simply "Liturgical service upon the instruments of eighths". The passage in 1 Chronicles xv, 21, is certainly to be interpreted in the same manner, bekinnoroth 'al-hasseminth " with lyres upon the instrument of the eight", i.e. upon eight-stringed lyres. In verse 20 other musicians play with lyres 'al-'alāmōth; 'alāmōth is also the name of a kind of lyre, but Assyrian has not yet furnished an explanation.

¹ An instrument; see below on line 46,

- 39. 2 ri-ib-ku ki-min. Two ribku songs in Sumerian.
- (40. 2 šu-me-ru (pl.).
- 41. 3 $ak-ka-du-\acute{u}$.
- (42. naphar 5 ku-ur-du.

Two songs in Sumerian and three in Semitic, all together five songs of heroism.

Since no specimen of this class of poetry, which is definitely described as kurdu or heroic verse, has been found, it is difficult to decide concerning what the Babylonian grammarians regarded as heroic verse. Following the analogy of classical poetry it should refer to epics like the Epic of Gilgamish and the Epic of Creation in Semitic or to the Sumerian Epic of Ninurta, lugal-e ud me-lum-bi nir-gál, and the Epic of Paradise. These did not, however, form part of the musical services, and the grammarians probably refer to compositions like the long hymn to Marduk, adallal zikirka, which is called za-ra-a tanitti iluMarduk narbi ilatZarpanitum, "a ZARA of the glory of Marduk and the greatness of Zarpanit," an acrostic. This hymn actually contains the words lušarrih kurdi-ka, "I will glorify thy heroism," and has for the most part the peculiar measure, hexameter + pentameter, for each strophe. On the other hand a prayer of the atonement, which was certainly not an heroic, ends kurud-ka ludlul, "I will sing of thy heroism," addressed to Sakut.2 A poem to Agušaia on two large tablets is more like heroic verse than any composition known to the writer composed in lines of two accents and strophes of eight lines.3

43. 1 kar-su-ú Akkad-(ki). One ritualistic instruction (?) in Semitic.

Karsû is a new word and has the appearance of being

¹ Hehn, BA. v, 309-119; Jensen, KB. vi², 108-17.

² King, Magic, No. 5, 10.

³ Scheil, RA. 15, 170-82, and Zimmern, *Ishtar und Saltu*. Cf. the hymn to Marduk in a New Year Festival, RA. 8, 43, *lidbub kurdi-ku*, l. 14.

a loan-word from garza, garzu = parşu, ritual directions. The kind of tablet which I have in mind would be Ebeling, No. 44 = Zimmern, ZA. 30, 204 ff. This interpretation implies that the catalogue is not confined to musical compositions, but includes rituals which contain prayers and chants.

44. 5 me-ir-ru šu-me-ru. Five merru in Sumerian.

Merru is probably the name of an instrument, but I attempt no explanation.

45. 23 *\text{tr\tau1} \times a e-\tilde{s}ir-te Akkad-(ki)\$. Twenty-three "songs of the breast" for the instrument of ten (strings), in Semitic.

These twenty-three songs were catalogued at the top of Rev. ii, and the titles of the last five are partially preserved. All of the *irātu* compositions seem to be ballads of the love of women, and *irtu* (always of the breast of man) is employed as the term descriptive of the chief motive of these licentious verses. The Hebrew name for the instrument of ten strings is the 'āśōr. The titles of the five "songs of the breast" which remain on the tablet are:—

- Rev. ii, 1. [lup ?]-lu-us-ka-ma []. I will behold (?) thee . . .

 - an-nu-ú și-bu-tu ša hu-du ka-bat-ti.
 This one is the desire which makes happy my mind.

¹ GAB-MEŠ, rendered i-ra-tu, Rev. ii, 6.

² Ṣe'u, ṣû, from TFY, Arabic ṣaģija, to incline to, give ear to, and Arb. saģṛun, favour, love.

Rev. ii, 5. ep-šu pi-i-ka at-mu balāṭi-ia nādin me hani-ma.¹

When thou speakest it is the word of my life . . . of the inwards (?).

46. 17 iratu ša ki-it-me. Seventeen "songs of the breast" for the kitmu.

Kitmu² occurs also in the sense of sheet, coverlet, in Maklu, v, 36. It stands here between eširtu and ibbubu, both names of instruments, and kitmu is obviously an instrument also. The Hebrew rubric which occurs at the beginning of six Psalms also denotes a similar instrument. Psalm xvi is a miktam of David, i.e. a song to the miktam. The title of Psalm lx has "upon the šūšan or instrument of thirds after the rule of the miktam". Since šūšan probably denotes a pipe, it seems necessary to see in miktam a similar wind instrument.

The titles of these seventeen ballads of love on the kitmu (pipe?) are given on Rev. ii, 7-23:—

Rev. ii, 7. ki-e şi-ha-a-ku a-na na-ah-ši! How do I long for pleasure!

¹ Hânu, part of the body and of animals a sacrificial part, certainly part of the inwards; see Holma, Körperteile, 153. But what is me ha-ni? Text may not be in order.

With the root katāmu, to cover, is certainly connected the difficult Hebrew rubric DDD. Babylonian derived a word for treasure, katimtu, from this root, precisely parallel to the Hebrew DDD gold. For katimtu, treasure, see Saryon Annals, 196, katimti šadē, and ZA. iv, 31, 28, bā'ir katimti, he that hunts for secret treasure. Hence katimtu, secret wisdom, nisirtu katimtu, the treasure of secret wisdom, Streck, Assurbanipal, ii, 254, 13, and nisirta amuv-ma katimtu, the mystery I saw even the secret wisdom, Epic of Gilgamish, i, 5. When Eben Esra connected the Hebrew miktam with the word kéthem, gold, he was at any rate inspired. Other explanations of miktam which have come down through the LXX translators, the Targums and the Latin versions only show how completely the rubric had been forgotten. Philologically miktam corresponds to the Babylonian naktamu, lid, metal cover for a vessel, and the Hebrew word may denote an instrument of percussion like the tambourine or cymbal.

- Rev. ii, 8. *û.um e-en im-ni-ia* ¹ *iš-hi-da-an-ni*.

 "The day of my right eye" has mounted up unto me.
 - 9. i li-ķi² a-ma-aṣ-ṣi a-na ma-a-ri. Up: take, I will come unto the son (beloved).
 - ma-te-ma be-lu te-ru-ba i-na-an-na.
 At any time, O master, thou didst enter now.
 - bi-i-pa-ku a-na da-di-ka.
 I am pressed to thy breast.
 - 12. it-ti šim-ta-a-at mu-ši-ti.
 With the hours of night.
 - 13. mu-ú-ša m.t-a-ru u-šam-ša-a-ku.⁴
 By night the son (beloved) I . . . (?).
 - 14. ar am-mar ša-ma-an ki-ti.
 Ah, I will find the oil of the mattress.
 - û-mu ub-la bu-su-ra-tu-ma bu-ud lib-bi.
 O day, bring glad tidings, even joy of heart.
 - 16. e-la-ia 6 ma-a-ru lu-na-me-ir 7 ir-ba. Without me verily has the son (beloved) been happy? O enter!
- An expression for "a lover" which is not found in any other Semitic language.
- ² Apparently a clear example of the particle *i* with the imperative; see also Luckenbill, AJSL, 32, 270, and Knudtzon, *Amarua Tafeln*, p. 586, 138
- ** False plural of **imtu, the t being incorporated in the word. One is reminded of the expression for dying, alāku ana **simat māši, but this idea is hardly to be expected in songs of passion. A word **simtu, evening shadows (v. R. 39, 33 and 31), exists, whence the dual **imtāu, evening, ii, R. 7, 28, and the false plural + dual **imētāu, evening, **Simtu, evening, and **simetāu are surely connected with Arabic surai*atuu, mement, **surā*uu, first vigil of the night; see Driver's Notes in this volume.
- ⁴ The form as a permansive is incomprehensible. Perhaps a denominative from a noun ušamšā. Cf. šamšā, šumšā, evening, JRAS. 1920, 570, n. 2.
 - * Exclamation?
 - ⁶ False for ela-jāti; cf. CT. 15, 35, 5.
- 7 Apparently an example of the subjective pi'el describing the state of the subject.

- Rev. ii, 17. la-a me-ķi-ir-ti iš-nu-na-an-ni. Not has a rival equalled me.
 - 18. su-ni ib-bu-ri-ti la-ha-na-tu da-šu-up-tu.

 The bosom of a female friend is a jar of sweetness.
 - 19. šu-up-pi hu-ul-li.

 Make thy self beautiful, be radiant.
 - 20. da-am-ša-aš-ni ¹ be-la-ni.

 Caress me, be my lord.
 - 21. sa-am-mu-ut e-ri-ni ra-am-ka be-lu.

 The fragrance of cedar is thy love, O lord!
 - 22. a-na kip² e-ni ta-al-li-al-am-ma.

 Of the eyelids thou singest merrily.
 - 23. a-na mu-ši-ti an-ni-ti a-na li-la-ti an-na-ti. For this night, for these evenings.

All of these titles, except l. 19, indicate songs of women addressed to a māru or lover.

- 47. 24 irātu ša ib-bu-be. Twenty-four "songs of the breast" for the flute.
- 48. 4 irātu ša pi-i-te. Four "songs of the breast" for the pitā.3
- 49. irātu ša nit kablî. "Songs of the breast" concerning the nit kablî.
- 50. ? irātu ša ni-il gap-ri. ? "Songs of the breast" concerning the nîl gapri.
- 51. [? irātu] ša ķabli-te. ? "Songs of the breast" for the inidnight.

¹ For timšaš? The root mašāšu, stroke, Arabic massa, exists in Assyrian; cf. Holma, Kleine Beitrage, 16.

² For kippu = kappu, wing, cf. kib-be tubkat arba'i, Messerschmidt, KTA. 16, 5, and for kappi ĉni, "wing of the eye," eyelid, see Holma, Korperteile, 17.

³ See above, l. 15.

⁴ Certainly identical with nit libbi, womb, Holma, Körperteile, 109.

⁵ Semen virilis.

52. $[naphar 68 + ? ir\bar{a}tu \ ak-ka-du-]\acute{a}.$

All together 68 + ? "songs of the breast" in Semitic.

On Rev. ii, 25-55, are the titles of twenty-nine ballads of love and passion, and the list is not complete. We naturally expect here the twenty-four titles required by l. 47, but the similar songs in ll. 48-50 seem to have been included in the detailed catalogue which follows.

- Rev. ii, 25. ki-e na-ah-ša-at ki-e nam-ra-at. How is she delightful? How is she attractive?
 - 26. i-\(\epsilon\) i-
 - 27. â-ma lib-bi me-lu-la ni-gu-ta."On the day of the heart," with sport and music.
 - 28. a ri-id kirá šarri ha-si-bu e-ri-ni.

 O come down to the garden of the king
 which recks with cedar.
 - 29. at-ta ma-a-ru ra-i-mu da-da-ni.²
 Thou art a son (beloved) lover of the bosom.
 - 30. e-bir-tu nári a-lu me-li-li.3
 On the farther shore of the river is the city of gladness.
 - 31. aš-ru un-ni ta-gu-ša arah și-ha-ti.
 In the place of the grapes thou didst tread in the month of wine pressing.4
- ¹ Hardly the same word as issue, it shall be plundered (?) in omens, Klauber, Politisch-Religiose Texte, p. 132, 13; CT. 20, 31, 24; 32, 74 f., and isas, CT. 28, 3, 3; Boissier, Hilprecht Anniversary Volume, 358, 14.
- ² Dadānu, breast, Syn. labānu, Sum. uzn-sa-yū and gū-sa, Sumerian Grammatical Texts, p. 10. Cf. di-a-da-a-nu, Poebel, PBS v, 137, 6.
 - Melilu occurs also in ZA. 10, 298, 45.
- 4 Uncertain. Unnu from south Semitic [77] is to be expected in Assyrian over against the Canaanitish [77] înu, grapes, wine. A root [77] with the same sense as nagāšu exists. Cf. guāšu = alāku, CT. 18, 6, 48, and gāšanui, hasten unto me, Eb. 25, ii, 22. Note also the form [77] gēšu, syn. of nagāšu, Meissner, SAI. 2195, 97. Şiḥati is here regarded as a noun from ṣāḥātu, to press grapes.

- Rev. ii, 32. *ul-la a-li-ik ma-a-ru.*Come unto gladness, O son (beloved).
 - 33. ki-i za-ra-at ša at-ha-at-ti.¹

 How is she most unfriendly of sisters?
 - 34. iṣ-ṣur tu-ti-id ku-ur-ri lal-la-ru ri-gim-ki. Like the bird . . . of honey is thy voice.
 - 35. ša-an-da-na-ak² kirû si-ha-ti.
 ...? the garden of desires.
 - 36. û-um-DU3 i-na âli La-ar-sa-an 4 si-ḥa-tu i-zi-ḥa.⁵

Everyday in the city Larsa pleasant things are wafted

38. ri-i-ši ^{dat}Na-na-a i-na kirî Ebabbar⁶ ša ta-ra-mi.

Rejoice, O Nana, in the garden of Ebabbar, which thou lovest.

- 39. me-ir-tu ub-la lib-ba-ša šu-a-ra.
 The maiden whose heart was stirred to sing.
- 40. ka-ja-nam-ma ki-i sak-ta-ku-ma. How am I ever silent?
- 41. a și-iḥ-ku ma-an mārê. Yea, I long for the couch of sons (lovers).
- 42. $ma\mathring{s}$ -ma-a-tu $\ell n\mathring{a}$ -ia im-da-tu-a $\mathring{s}i$ -it-tu. In the gloaming (ℓ) my eyes are filled with sleep.

Athāti > athati by analogy with athâ, brothers, v. R. 31, 34; Creat. i, 21.

² An adverb?

^{*} Error for uš?
4 Locative ending? et, ebretân, elân, matitân.

For the idea of, Thureau-Dangin, Sargon, 246, and for izik, present, Boissier, DA, 232, 40.

⁶ Temple of Shamash at Ellasar.

⁷ Literally "her heart bore song". Mertu, maiden, refers to the virgin Ishtar, Obv. ii, 22, as patroness of love ballads. Šuara is probably the same word that occurs in Creation i, 24, ina śwaru lib?..., a uwKingu, with shouting Kingu..., restored from Ebeling, No. 118, Obv. 23; śwaru is derived from the middle war form of צור śwaru. strophe.

Rev. ii, 43. ra-am-ka lu-ú aban-ka si-ha-tu-ka lu-ú un-gi.

Thy love verily is thy jewel, thy longing verily is my ring.

- 45. ra-a-mi ni-i-ru mus-na-me-ru silli.

 My love is a lamp illuminating the shadows.
- 46. mw-ú-ŝα aḥ-su-us-ka-ma. By night I thought of thee.
- 47. ip-šu pi-i-ka. When thou speakest.
- 48. iš-tu sa-al-la-ku i-na su-un ma-a-ri.

 After I reposed in the bosom of the son (beloved).
- 49. vi-bi-ka¹ ša ^{aban}ukni šadi.

 Thy passion is of the lapis lazuli of the mountain.
- 50. ha-di-iš ak-ša šar-ru. Gladly basten hither. O king.
- 51. mi-ig-ru ha-am-ru.³
 Affection (is) blind.
- 52. i-na la-li-ki fu-un-bi.
 In thy lusciousness is my fruit.
- 53. ú-ka-a-al ra-am-[ka?].
 I will retain thy love.
- 54. i-na ša-a-ar [].
 In the breath of . . .

This great catalogue about half of which has been preserved, contained on the obverse only formal prayers and liturgies, which were composed in series of melodies (zamaru). Cols. i and ii of the obverse prove contrary to all our published texts that formal liturgies, each composed of several songs, existed in Semitic. For

¹ Cf. Arabic raĝab. love, from raĝiba, to hunger for.

² "King" is employed in ll. 28 and 50 in the sense of lover.

[•] For bamaru = אור. be blind see Holma, Personennamen, 56 (after Landsberger); and so this famous saying is Assyrian!

example, i, 12-16, has the titles of four Semitic series which contained sixteen songs, or an average of four songs to each liturgy. They are all addressed to a goddess. i, 20-4 has the first lines of five series addressed to the Fire God. Line 25 gives the total "five series and twenty-one songs". Obv. 28-33 has the titles of five series addressed to Ramman and these contain twenty-six songs. i, 37-41 has five series addressed to Shamash with thirty-one songs.

Col. ii, as far as line 48, carries only the titles of series to Ishtar, and at the end of this section the scribe enters the figure for the total of all the songs of the various Ishtar series. On Obv. iii, where the titles of various canonical Sumerian liturgies are given, the résumé under each section names the instrument employed to accompany the recitation; only the flute teyû and tambourine or drum (adapa) occur in the section which has been preserved. Since the sections of the catalogue devoted to Semitic series of songs contain no rubrics with the names of instruments, it seems apparent that these Semitic song services did not obtain recognition as strictly canonical liturgies.

The four columns of the reverse are devoted to prayers of the private services and to popular songs and ballads. The numerous prayers of the lifting of the hand or prayers of the magic rituals of atonement do not appear to have come within the scope of the catalogue. The scribe has confined himself severely to public worship, popular songs, and formal prayers of penance, which were chiefly Sumerian. It is, strictly speaking, a catalogue of musical compositions. Col. i of the reverse has an analysis of sacred and profane compositions which were accompanied by instruments. Cols. ii—iv contained the titles of all the prayers and songs given in the analysis of Rev. i. A great portion of these lines are lost. These titles seem to have begun on col. iv instead of col. ii as

one would expect. The remnants of the titles of thirteen sidru or recitations on col. iv were probably referred to in the epitome at the top of col. i now broken away. The titles of all the songs of workmen, shepherd songs, wisdom songs, penitential Sumerian prayers to the tegû (flute), tambourine and similar Semitic prayers listed in col. i, 1-27, have been lost at the end of col. iv and the top of col. iii. The various Semitic songs of the feast, to the reed flute, songs of youth, and other ballads listed in col. i, 28-34, are fortunately preserved. The interesting ballads listed on col. i, 35-44, containing songs of victory, of heroism, and to various instruments have all been lost at the end of col. iii The love ballads listed in col. i, 45-51, accompanied by the instrument of ten strings, the pipe, the flute, and the pitû are preserved on col. ii.

This remarkable text confirms the distinction between public and private worship which the writer has ever maintained, and it proves also that the penitential prayers of the private services were accompanied by an instrument. They were formal and canonical, and hence they are for the most part Sumerian. Perhaps the most striking aspect of the new information is the existence of a large number of popular ballads in Semitic. Unfortunately, not one has been found. Only the titles translated in this paper remain. But the value of this new text is not contined to Assyriology. Hebrew studies claim also a large profit, and not a few of the cryptic rubrics of the Psalms, whose meanings were unknown to the Rabbis as early as the second century B.C., are at last explained.

Some Poems from the Manyoshu and Ryojin Hissho

BY A. D. WALEY

I. Manyō. Of the four thousand one hundred short poems in the Manyōshū, about two hundred have been translated, by Florenz,¹ Aston,² Dickins,³ and others.⁴ Many more deserve translation, particularly the dialect-songs, which have been avoided by previous translators. A few of these (noted as such when they occur), and some fifty other songs not hitherto translated, will be found below, with text and rendering.

For general information with regard to the Manyo, I must refer my reader to the works mentioned at the foot of this page. The order of the poems is that of the Manyo; the numbers, those of the Kokka Daikwan 國 歌 夫 觀.

95. Ware wa mo yo

I have got her.

Yasumiko etari, Mina hito no Egate ni su tou Yasumiko etari !

Have got Yasumiko; She who for any man Was thought hard to get, Yasumiko I have got!

By Fujiwara no Kamatari (A.D. 614-59). This song, astounding in its simplicity, was made by Kamatari when ne married the lady-in-waiting Yasumiko.

123. Taleba nure;

When it is put up, it straggles;

Takaneba nagaki

When it is let down, it is too long,

Imo ga kami,

My lady's hair!

Kono-goro minu ni

This great while that I have not seen her

Midare tsuramu ka? How tangled it must have grown!

By Mikata no Sami.5

Geschichte der japanischen Literatur.

² History of Japanese Literature,

³ Japanese Texts.

⁴ e.g. Waley, Japanese Poetry (Clarendon Press, 1919),

b Where no date is given it may be assumed that the writer lived c. 700. In cases where no writer's name is given the poems are anonymous.

194 POEMS FROM THE MANYOSHU AND RYOJIN HISSHO

124. Hito mina wa
"Ima wa nagashi" to,
"Take" to iyedo,
Kimi qa mishi kami

Midaritari to mo-

Every one is saying
"Now it is too long"
And "Put it up";
But the hair that you used to look at,
However tangled it may grow—

(Reply to above.)

125. Tachibana no
Kage fumu michi no
Ya-chimata ni
Mono wo zo omou
Imo ni awazute!

What longing fills my heart
When at the meeting of the ways that tread
The shadow of orange-trees
I meet not with my love!

By Mikata no Sami.

142. Iye ni areba Ki ni moru ii wo, Kusamakura Tabi ni shi areba Shii no ha ni moru.

with a first served !

Wy rice that when I was at home ru ii wo, I ate from a wooden bowl, was at home lare from a wooden bowl, with a reba in a roba lare from a wooden bowl, which are ba wooden bowl, was at home lare from a wooden bowl, was at home ru in wooden bowl, was at home lare from a wooden bowl, which is the lare from

607. Mina hito wo
"Neyo" to no kane wa
Utsunaredo,
Kimi wo shi omoyeba
Ineqatenu kamo!

Though now to all men
"Go sleep!" the evening bell
Its warning tolls;
Yet I that am longing for my lord,
Alas, I sleep not!

By Lady Kasa, died 733.

1158. Sumiyoshi no Kishi no matsu ya ne Uchisarashi Yorikuru nami no Oto shi kiyoshi mo! Of onward-creeping waves That bleach the pine-tree roots How very clean the sound, At Sumiyoshi shore!

1165. Yūnagi ni Asarisuru tazu Shio miteba, Okinami takami Ono ga tsuma yobu. That crane who, in the evening breeze Searches the shore for food, Because the tide grows high And the waves of the offing rise Calls warning to his mate. 1235. Nami takashi. Ika ni, kajitori, Mizudori no Ukine ya subeki Nao ya kogubeki ? The waves are high. How now, helmsman, Shall we like water-birds Sleep a floating sleep, Or go on rowing? 1

1257. Michi no be no Kusafuke yuri no Hana emi ni Emashishi kara ni Tsuma to iubeshi ya ? Only because you smiled on me With a smile like the lily which grows In the grass-clump by the wayside, Am I to call you bride?

1263. " Aka toki" to Yo-garasu nakedo, Kono mine no Konure ga uye wa Imada shizukeshi.

"The time is dawn"
The crows of night are calling;
But round the tree-tops of yonder mountain
All yet is still.2

1777. Kimi nakuba Nado ni yosowamu ? Kushige taru Tsuge no okusni mo Toramu to mo omowazu. Were it not for you,
Why should I adorn my body?
Even the little combs of boxwood
That are in my comb-box
I think I should not use.

By the Lady of Harima.

1796. Momijiba no Suginishi kora to Tazusawari Asobishi iso wo Mireba kanashi mo! How sad to gaze upon the shore Where hand in hand I wandered With a maiden vanished As leaves fall from the trees!

By Hitomaro.

1885. Mono mina wa Atarashiki yoshi ; Tada hito wa Furitaru nomi shi Yoroshikarubeshi. All other things Find ways to be young again; Man only with staying old Must rest content.

¹ A satirical appeal to the oarsmen to row hard through the storm.

² Addressed by a lady to a lover leaving her at dawn.

1892. Haruyama no
Kiri ni madoyeru
Uguisu mo
Ware ni masarite
Mono omowame ya mo.

Even the nightingale
That has lost its way
In the mist of the spring hills
Not more baffled is
Than I by the maze of love.

By Hitomaro.

1949. Hototogisu Kesa no asake ni Nakitsuru wa Kimi kikikemu ka. Asa i ka uuramu ?

The cuckoo's cry
That at the daybreak of to-day
I heard to ring—
Did you hear it, or were you sleeping
Your morning sleep, my lord?

2368. Tarachine no Haha ga te karete Kaku bakari Sube naki koto wa Imada senaku ni. Since first I left the hands Of the mother who suckled me, Never by plight so helpless Was I yet perplexed!

By Hitomaro.

2195. Tarachine no
Haha ga kauko no
Mayu-gomori
Komoreru imo wo
Mimu yoshi mo gamo!

Oh that I might get sight
Of my lady hidden away
Like silkworms in their cocoons,
The silkworms that her mother breeds!

By Hitomaro.

2550. Tachite omoi.
Ite mo zo omou
Kurenai no
.1ka mosuso hiki
Inishi sugata wo.

Abroad I dream.
At home forever dream.
Of a form that vanished, trailing Petticoats crimson-dyed.

2564. Nubatama no Imo ga kurokami Koyoi mo ka Warc naki toko ni Nabikete nuramu ? My lady's hair that is black
As the whortleberry—
To-night, too, when I am far away,
Does she trail it in sleep across the bed?

2687. Sakurao ¹ no
Ou no shitagusa
Tsuyu shi aceba
Akashite iyake,
Haha wa shiru to mo,

On the under-leaves of the thicket Of hemp close-growing Fast falls the dew; Do not leave me till the dawn breaks, Even should my mother know--

2811. Waya seko ga Asake no sugata Yoku mizute Kefu ² no aida wo Koi ya kurasamu. Because but dimly
At the break of morning
I saw my lover's form,
All the hours of to-day
In longing i shall spend.

2855. Niibari no Ima tsukuru michi no Sayaka ni mo Kikirikeru kamo, Imo ga uye no koto wo. Clear as gleams the road That to-day the workmen were digging I have heard it at last, The tale that of my lady is told.

2859. Asukagawa Takagawa yoqashi Koyete kitsu. Makoto koyoi wa Akezu yukame ya. Asuka River Right to its source I mounted And came back hither; To-night, I swear it, I will not leave you till dawn.

2869. Ima wa a wa Shinamu yo, wagimo! Awazushite Omoiwatareba Yasukeke no nashi. Now, now shall I
Die, lo my lord!
Because we met not
Being in mind so troubled
That I cannot rest.

3149. Tsukubane no Niiguwa mayo no Kinu wa aredo, Kimi ga mikeshi shi Aya ni kihoshi mo Though on new mulberry-leaves
Of Tsukubane the silkworms were fed
From whose silk my dress is spun.
Thy splendid garment
Rashly would I wear!

¹ The meaning of this fixed-epithet of "hemp" is uncertain.

² To be consistent I should transliterate ken or $ky\bar{v}$, but the ancient form seems more appropriate in poetry.

3350. Shinanu ji wa Ima no hari michi

Karibaka ni Ashi fumashimu na, Kutsu hake, waga se!

3455. Koishikeba Kimase, waga seko!

> Kaki tsu yagi Ure tsumikarashi

Ware tachimatamu.

3459. Ine tsukeba

Kagaru aga te wo

Koyoi mo ka

Tono no waku ko ga Torite nagekamu?

3476. Ube kona wa ² Wanu ni kounamo!

Tato tsuku no

Kona = kora.

Nuganaye yukeba Koishikarunamo.

3517. Shirakumo no Tayenishi imo wo Aze sero to? Kokoro ni norite

Kokoba kanashike.

 $Ase\ sero = ikani\ semu.$

3873. Waga kado ni Chidori shiba naku ;

> Oki yo, oki yo, Waga hito-yo tsuma!

Hito ni shirayu na !

On the Shinano way

Where they are making the new path,

Upon the spikes

Do not tread with bare feet;

Put on your shoes, my Brother! 1

Because I am longing,

Come, O my Brother! The willows of the hedge—

Their tops I will trim,

And wait for you there.

My hand that is sore

With pounding the rice,

To-night again

The young lord's son-

Will he take it and sigh?

Well may my beloved

Be pining for me;

For while of months that pass

The stream flows by

How dear she grows!

wanu - ware, kounamo = kouramu, $tsuku - tatsu \ tsuki, \ nuganaye = nagaraye.$

Like a white cloud

Has my lady vanished.

Oh, what shall I do?

She rides upon my heart, And I am thus dispirited.

At my house door

Loudly the curlews cry;

Rise up, rise up, My one night's bride!

Lest our love be known to men.

¹ Addressed by a rustic lady to a fine lord. To "share a garment" means to lie under the same cloak.

² The remaining songs are, to a varying degree, in the Eastern dialect.

1285. Yuko saki ni Nami oto era:; Shirube ni wa Ko wo ra, tsuma wo ra Okite ra mo kinu Where I must go
The noise of waves resounds;
In the place from whence I come
Children and wife I have left.

By Sasaibe no Isoshima.

Yuko = yuku; ra, a particle much used in the Eastern Dialect.

1389. Shiobune no He kosu shira nami Niwashikumo Ōse-tamao ka Omowaye naku ni With the swiftness of a white wave That suddenly whelms the stern Of a ship at sea Has come the King's command, At an hour when I expected it not.

By Hasebe Otoshi.

1405. Waya rmoko ga " Shinabi ni seyo" to Tsukeshi himo Ito ni naru to mo Wa wa tokuje to yo The sash that, saying
"For remembrance wear it",
My lady put on me--Though it wear to a thread
Never will I until it!

By Asakura Masuhito.

1131. Sasa ga ha no sayaqu shimo-yo ni Nanaye karu Koromo ni maseru Koro ga hada wa mo.

Koro - ko ra.

On this frosty night when clash The bamboo leaves in the wind, Better than these nine coats I wear My lady's limbs would warm me.¹

II. Ryōjin Hisshō 梁 廛 秘抄.2

The priest Kenkō speaks in his Tsurezuregusa (c. 1336) of a song-book called the Ryōjin Hisshō; "Even in the words of these rustic tunes," he says, "there are many charming passages." The songs were supposed to have been

¹ Song of a soldier fighting on the frontier.

² "Rafter-dust Secret Collection"; so called because a good song shakes the dust on the rafters.

collected in the middle of the twelfth century under the auspices of the Emperor Goshirakawa. Soon after Kenkō's time the book disappeared and was not rediscovered till 1911, when Mr. Wada Hidematsu unearthed the MS. in a second-hand bookshop. It was published by Mr. Sasaki Nobutsuna in the following year. Most of the songs are crude paraphrases of passages from the Buddhist scriptures, and are of no interest as literature; others are adaptations of well-known classical poems. But there remains a residuum of true folk-poetry, which is of the greatest interest.

The book has not, so far as I know, been even alluded to by any European writer; I have therefore translated a few of the folk-poems.

1. Ware wo tanomete konu otoko

Tsuno mitsu oitaru oni ni nare ;

Sate hito ni utomare yo ! Shimo yuki arare furu

Mizuta no tori to nare ; Sate ashi tsumetakare ! Ike no ukigusa to narine kashı !

To-yuri, kau-yuri yurare arike!

2. Bijo uchimireba.

Hito moto kazura narinaba ya to zo omou;

Moto yori suye made yorarebaya!

Kiru to mo kizamu to mo

Hanaregataki wa waga sukuse!

May he that bade me trust him, but did not come,

Turn into a demon with three horns on his head,

That all men may fly from him!

May be become a bird of the waterfields

Where frost, snow, and hail fall, That his feet may be frozen to ice! Oh may be become a weed afloat on the pond!

May be tremble as he walks with the trembling of the hare, with the trembling of the doe!

When I look at my lovely lady,

Oh that I might become a clinging vine "I yearn,

"That from toe to tip I might be twined about her.

Then though they should cut, though they should carve— Inseparable our lots! 3. Kimi ga aiseshi aya-i-gasa

Ochinikeri, ochinikeri! Kamogawa ni, kawa naka ni.

Sore wo motomu to tuzune to seshi hodo ni Akenikeri, akenikeri, Sara sara to ike no aki no yo wa.

4." Waga koi wa

Ototohi miyezu, kinou kozu;

Kefu otozure nakuba, Asu no tsurezure ¹ Ika ni sema!

- 5. Yamabushi no
 Koshi ni tsuketaru
 Horagai no
 Chō to ochi,
 Tei to ware:
 Kudakete mono wo
 Omoa koro!
- 6. Azuma yori
 Kuwu kitareba
 Me mo motazu;
 Kono kitaru
 Kon no kariao ni
 Musume kaye tabe!
- 7. Yama-osa ga Koshi ni saitaru Tsuzura-fuchi Omowamu hito no Koshi ni sasasemu !

The hat you loved, the damask trimmed reed-hat

Has fallen, fallen!

Into Kamo River, into the middle of the

And while I searched and while I sought

Day dawned, day dawned;

Oh the rustling rustling of that autumr night by the pools!

As for my love-

Yesterday he came not, nor the day before was seen.

If to-day there is no news With to-morrow's idle hours Oh what shall I do?

The conch-shell fastened At the pilgrim's thigh, The pilgrim mountain-faring— With a chō it has fallen, With a tei it has cracked: Even so my heart is shattered By this torment of love.

But yesterday
I came from the East, and brought
No bride with me;
I pray you, take
This purple hunting-cloak I wear
And buy for me a maid!

Like the rattan-whip
That the headsman of the mountain
Wears fastened at his thigh,
To the limbs of one that should love me
Would that I were pressed!

The slight play on the words of ozure, tsurezure cannot be rendered in English.

8. Kaze ni nabiku mono-Matsu no kozuye no takaki eda, Take no kozuye to ka, Umi ni ho kakete hashiru fune,

Sora ni wa ukigumo, Nobe ni wa hana-susuki.

9. Tsukushi no Moji ¹ no Seki Seki no sekimori oinikeri:

Bin shiroshi.

Nani tote suyetaru 2 Seki no sekiya no sekimori nareba.

Toshi no yukuye wo ba Todomezaramu?

10. Tsuki mo, tsuki Tatsu-tsuki goto ni

> Wakaki kana. Tsukuzuku oi wo suru waga mi Oh what will the end be? Nani naruramu?

11. Asobi wo semu to ya Umarekemu; Tawabure semu to na Mumarekemu. Asobu kodomo no Koye kikeba Waga mi saye koso Yuruqarure.

12. Maye, maye, katatsuburi! Mawanu mono naraba Uma no ko ya

Things that bend in the wind-The tall branches of pine-tree tops, Or the little twigs of bamboos, Boats that run with spread sails on the

Floating clouds in the sky, And in the fields the flowering susuki.

The Warden of the barrier. The Barrier of the Gatemen in Tsukushi Land

Has grown old and the hair of his temples is white.

He that in his Ward-house is warden Of the barrier that bars the road

How comes it that he cannot tarry The passage of the years?

Even the moon— The moon at each new-moon is young again.

But of me that am forever ageing,

For sport and play I think that we are born; For jesting and laughter I doubt not we are born. For when I hear

The voices of children at their play,

My limbs, even my Stiff limbs, are stirred.

Dance, dance, Mr. Snail! If you won't, I shall leave you For the little horse,

² suu means "to put as an obstruction"; cf. Ise Monogatari: Sono kayoiji ni yogoto ni hito wo suyete.

Ushi no ko ni
Kuyesasetemu; ¹
Fumi-warasetemu.
Makoto ni utsukushiku
Mautaraba,
Hana no sono made
Asobasemu!

13. Chihayaburu kami Kami ni mashimasu Mono naraba, Aware to oboshimesa! Kami mo mukashi wa Hito zo kashi.

14. Obotsukana
Tori dani nakanu
Okuyama ni
Hito koso oto su nare.
Ana! Tōto
Shugyōja no
Tōru narikeri!

For the little ox
To tread under his hoof,
To trample to bits.
But if quite prettily
You dance your dance,
To a garden of flowers
I will carry you to play.²

Oh gods almighty!
If gods indeed you are,
Take pity on me;
For even the gods were once
Such men as we.

In the unexplored
Deep hills where even of bird
There is no song—
Voices of men I hear.
Who can these be? It is the passing
Of the holy pilgrims on their way.

¹ 蹴 is written against this word; but no word knu, "to kick," is known to the dictionaries.

² There is a modern Tökyö children's song which begins Mai, mai, tsuburo! But like most modern snail-songs it ends with an appeal to the animal to put out its horns.

'Aziz Koka

BY H. BEVERIDGE

A ZIZ KOKA, "the beloved foster-brother" of the Emperor Akbar, is, I think, the most interesting character among the Agra courtiers of the sixteenth century, and the enduring, David and Jonathan like, friendship between him and Akbar is the most touching thing in the ponderous volumes of Abul Fazl's history. Not that 'Azīz was the best man among Akbar's servants, or that he was superior to his age. He was violent and full of faults, and there is little doubt the Hindu Rajah Todar Mal and the Muhammedan historian Nizāmu-d-dīn Ahmad were better men. But 'Azīz is more interesting and likeable, and we know more about him, and teel towards him as we do to the crabbed Badayūnī. Both men were honest and fearless, and had an outspokenness which is very refreshing after the pedantry and tortuousness of Abul Fazl. The author of the Masiru-l-Umara accuses 'Azīz of treachery (nifāq), because he wrote plainly to a friend and comrade of Akbar's faults, but he also admits that 'Azīz had not a particle of timeservingness in his nature: "Asla zamāna-sāz nabūd." He was the only man who had the courage to stand up against Akbar's sciolism and crude heresies, and he acted upon his convictions, for he relinquished his office and his emoluments and went off to Mecca rather than continue to serve an infidel king. True, he returned and became again an officer under Akbar, and for this he was scoffed at by Badayūnī. He said 'Azīz began like Ibrahim Adham (not Leigh Hunt's "Saint"), but forfeited all the merit of his action by afterwards giving in to Akbar, and becoming a disciple of the "Divine Faith". But I think Badayūnī has not allowed sufficiently for the affection between the two men—the emperor and his fosterbrother. They were both of about the same age, but 'Azīz was the younger of the two by a fcw months or weeks. They 206 'AZIZ KOKA

were brought up together, and 'Azīz's mother was Akbar's favourite nurse. As Akbar wrote to him when he sailed for Mecca, he was abandoning two Kaabas of flesh and blood; that is, his mother and Akbar, for a Kaaba of stone and mortar. Akbar had made a wonderful nine days' journey from Fathpur to Ahmadabad in Gujarat, to save 'Azīz from defeat, and by so doing had probably saved his life. The friendship between them was like that between Henry IV of France and Crillon.

Historians do not tell us where or when 'Azīz was born. But he was certainly born in India, and apparently the birth took place at Amarkote, for the mother was there in attendance on Humayun's wife, Hamida Bānu, who had the title of Miriam Makānī, that is, she who belongs to the Virgin Mary's household. Akbar was born in Amarkote, and as soon as the birth took place the Queen sent for Jī Jī Anaga and placed the child in her bosom. This was in accordance with a promise made to Jī Jī and to her husband Shamsu-d-dīn of Ghaznī, who had extricated Humayun from the Ganges after the battle of Kanaui. But as Jī Jī's own child 'Azīz was not then born, she was unable to be the first nurse to Akbar. Shamsu-d-din received the title of Atga or guardian of Akbar, and he became Akbar's prime minister and remained in that office until he was murdered by Adham Khan, the son of Maham Anaga, who was a great influence in Akbar's early days. Akbar promptly punished the murderer by having him thrown over the palace terrace. 'Azīz grew up along with Akhar, and he made much better use of his opportunities than did Akbar, for he became a scholar and wit, and also was a maker of verses. Akbar, on the other hand, was a backward boy, fonder of good eating and of pigeon-fancying than of his lessons, and never learned to read or write. Afterwards 'Azīz became a distinguished soldier and fought many battles in Gujarat and the Deccan, and was the man who put down Mozaffar, the claimant to the throne of Gujarat. Notwithstanding his love for Akbar, he opposed several of the emperor's schemes, and probably not without good reason. For Akbar was hasty, and not profound. His scheme of branding the cavalry horses was not a success, and he certainly made a mess of the affairs of Behar and Bengal and introduced confusion into chronology.

'Azīz was a very passionate man, and often did things of which he repented afterwards. Thus he put one of his collectors of revenue into the charge of another officer who had a private grudge against the collector. The result was that the officer tortured the latter until he died. 'Azīz's wrath was roused when he heard of this, and he put the officer to death. This caused fresh confusion, for the officer's father prepared to lodge a complaint for his son's death before the emperor, and 'Azīz had to pay a large sum of money in order to stop the prosecution. Jahāngīr once asked 'Azīz's son to be responsible for his father's good behaviour. The son replied that he would always be bail for his father and suffer for his delinquencies, but that he could not check his father's tongue.

It is unfortunate that we have no full and impartial biography of 'Azīz. Blochmann's account is good, but is too short. Muhammad Husain Sahib Azad, the author of the excellent Darbar Akhari, has no separate notice of 'Azīz. All he gives is a letter which 'Azīz wrote to Akbar from Mecca giving his reasons for not returning to India. (See p. 759.) But it is a very important letter, though a little difficult to read. One would like to know where Muhammad Husain got it, and if the copy which was his source still exists. It is in this letter that 'Azīz scoffs at the two brothers Faizī and Abul Fazl, and asks if Akbar regards them as equal to 'Alī and Othman. He also seems to complain that India is no longer a place to die and be buried in, as infidels are buried in the sacred grounds of good Muhammedans. Perhaps this is a hit at Mubarak (the father of the two heretical brothers) and his wife's having been buried in a sacred part of Lahore, and afterwards in Agra. There is also a passage near the top of p. 960 which I do not fully understand, but which seems

to mean that 'Azīz hopes to get service under the Sultan of the Turks, either at Constantinople or Mecca.

The biography in the first volume, p. 675, of the Masiru-l-Umarā is very full and tolerably fair, but I think it is not quite just to 'Azīz.

The charge of treachery is chiefly based on a letter which 'Azīz wrote to Rajah 'Alī, the ruler of Khandesh. The letter does not exist, and we have only Jahangir's account of it. He represents it as being full of horrible charges against Akbar, but it may be that it only told the truth about Akbar's heretical opinions. Nor do we know when it was written. If this was when 'Azīz was smarting under the injuries and insults to his beliefs which had driven him into exile, its language was excusable. It may have been no worse than what Badayūnī was writing, and which led Jahāngīr to try to suppress Badayūnī's book. At all events, it was not for Jahangīr, who had foully murdered his father's confidential servant, to be sensitive about attacks on his father's character. Furthermore, Jahangir is quite wrong in saying that 'Aziz's letter was especially base because written to an enemy. Rajah 'Alī was no enemy of Akbar. On the contrary, he fought for him and lost his life at Ashtī while valiantly fighting for the imperialist cause.

To conclude, it is one of the best points in Akbar's behaviour that he forgave his foster-brother and school-fellow for his language and his flight, was kind to the children whom 'Azīz had left behind in India, and received him with open arms when he returned from the port of Balawal to Agra. In their deaths they were not divided. 'Azīz wanted at the last to supersede Jahāngīr and to make Khusru emperor. But probably Akbar was not averse to this plan, and certainly it would have been better for India if Jahāngīr, the drunkard and opium-eater, and the murderer of Abul Fazl and Sherafgān, had not ascended the throne.

A Specimen of Colloquial Sinhalese

By H. S. PERERA AND DANIEL JONES

In the following text an attempt has been made to represent as accurately as possible the speech of Mr. H. S. Perera, a form of speech which we believe to be fairly typical of that of the educated Sinhalese of Colombo. The form of speech here recorded is that used in familiar conversation and will be found to differ greatly from the literary or semi-literary language of the ordinary textbooks.

The text is written phonetically, i.e. on the "one symbol per phoneme" principle, the phonetic alphabet used being that of the International Phonetic Association.

The following are some short particulars of the principal sounds requiring explanation. It must be remembered, however, that attempts to describe sounds by means of key-words are at best unsatisfactory, and only give a very vague idea of the sound. Thus "the English sound of e in 'get'" means different things to different readers, there being several easily distinguishable pronunciations of the word "get" in common use. More accurate descriptions of the Sinhalese speech-sounds will be found in the Colloquial Sinhalese Reader published by the Manchester University Press.

t, d are dental; t, d are retroflex ("cerebral"), but the point of contact of tongue-tip with palate is not so far back as in Tamil t, d.

ŋ is the English sound of ng in "long".

r is generally formed by a single flap of the tongue-tip. The s is somewhat "lisped", i.e. it is intermediate between the English sounds of s and th (as in "thin").

v is a "bi-labial v".

i has nearly the quality of the English sound of ee in "see".

e is similar to the Southern English sound of e in "get". æ is similar to the Southern English sound of a in "cab".

a has some resemblance to the English sound of a in "father".

o resembles the French sound δ in "tôt", or the vowel heard in the Scotch pronunciation of go; it is quite distinct from the various sounds used by Southern English speakers in words like "go", "home".

u is similar to the English sound of oo in "too".

e is similar to the English sound of a in "along".

: means that the sound represented by the preceding symbol is long. In the case of the vowels, differences of length are accompanied by slight differences of quality.

The nasal element of $\check{\mathbf{n}}g$ is exceedingly short. It belongs syllabically to the vowel which follows.

| indicates points in the sentence where breaks may be made; no breaks may be made between these points.

uturu huləğgai irai

uturu huləğgai irai kauru vædie balasam:pan:ədə kia beidə kərad:i unuhun sa:luak perəvagənə in:ə magiek lağga una. magiae sa:luə paləmuen: galəvan:də sælæs:u ek:ena vædie balasam:pan:eə kia moum be:ragənə uturu huləğgə puluan tadin hulan:gahæua. numut hulan:gahanə tarəmətə magia tavə tavə sa:lua perəvagat:a. an:time:di uturu huləğgə bæri bavə dænəgənə magia sa:luə ahak:əla. e:hin:da irə vædie balasam:pan:eə kia uturu huləğgətə e:t:ugan:də una.

TRANSLATION

The North Wind and the Sun

The north wind and the sun were disputing which was the stronger, when a traveller came along wrapped in a warm cloak. They agreed that the one who first made the traveller take off his cloak should be considered stronger than the other. Then the north wind blew with all his might, but the more he blew the more closely did the traveller fold his cloak around him; and at last the north wind gave up the attempt. Then the sun shone out warmly, and immediately the traveller took off his cloak; and so the north wind had to confess that the sun was the stronger of the two.

An Ethiopic-Falasi Glossary

EDITED AND TRANSLATED BY HARTWIG HIRSCHFELD

(Concluded from p. 58?, 1920.)

ፈተነ: ፈተነ: to try.

አፍጠነ: ፈጠነ: to hasten.

P11: $H \land G : \land \land : \text{ to be bent.}$

X11: Hinn: to be inclined.

X1: Mil: to incline.

11. it o pass urine.

hi: to be, to become.

TP: to despise.

TOUP: TTIMA: to deceive, to be deceived.

συκή: Λή :: ήἀζ: to measure; to count.

ሰውን: ስምንት : አደረገ : to make eight.

ர்ம்: ito pass urine.

Φή:

πό.:: Φή : to work; to determine.

በዋነ: ፈረደ :: ለP : to judge; to distinguish.

TAOU: to be true, honest.

ተዓየነ: ከተመ :: ጠበቀ : to encamp; to guard

On: to determine, to limit.

ያውነ: በቍረ: to be black.

ደዋነ: አጣ :: ፈረደ : to want; to judge.

ገመነ: አደረ : to be unclean.

አጸወነ: ተጠጋ : to support oneself.

ኩዝ: ፈረደ: to judge.

ሲደመነ : አ^{መነ} : to trust.

ተመነከነ: **የከ**P: to be poor.

ተመስከነ: ምስኪን: U1: to be poor.

" roo371: Trinα: to be deceived.

TOUHTH: TOUHTH: to be thanked.

ተሰልጠነ: ተሰለጠነ: to receive power.

ተሰደጠነ: ተተነኩለ: to deceive, to be deceived.

ተ3ተነ: ተፈገመንመ : to waver.

8381: 1PH: to decay.

Ф-3Ф-1: ФЗФ1: to be worm-eaten.

ருப்: M4.: to decay, to be ruined.

ተሰዓነ: 'ተጨመ' : to put shoes on.

ተባሽ: ተጣላ : to be thrown.

ተዋረነ: ተጣላ: to be thrown.

тря: тщір: to be distressed, embarrassed.

ደግነ: ተከተለ: to follow.

አማና0ነ: አስጠበቀ: to cause to be watched.

አማዕዘነ: ከፈረለ :: ከፈለ : to distribute.

ሐስዓ: Xፕ: አለ: to be silent.

3ብዓ : ሽሽን : to hide...

ንድዓ : **አ**ዥ : አለ : to be quiet.

ንዝዓ: XY: ለΛ: to be quiet.

ታዋሉ : አጣ : to want.

ለክዓ: ጻፈ :: ፕነበረ :: ለካ : to write: to nail:

to measure.

መልቁ : to be full.

ጋሀጽሕ : oom : to arrive.

ሰምዓ : መሰከረ :: ነነማ : to testify, to hear

WC9: Work.

ተሰብአ : ሰው : ሆነ : to be a man.

ሰክዓ: to thread a needle.

ረስዓ : ረሳ :: አረጀ : to forget; to be old.

ΔTQ: Φ**f**: to be just.

ZEG: to help.

274: 27: to congeal.

ረ**6.**ዓ: ከፋ: to be wide; to sew.

ውብዓ : ተo anoint.

Φ**7**Φ**Γ**: to be just.

ዋጽዓ: ቀጣ :: አጎበጠ : to chastise; to bend.

አብኝአ : አቦካ : to cause to ferment.

በልዓ : በላ : to eat.

ተበፅዓ: ተመሰንን: to be praised.

በቀሜ : ረባ :: ጠቀመ : to be useful; to help.

ተብዓ: ደፈረ: to be bold.

ተፍዓ: አንተፍ: ለለ: to spit.

ንሥሉ: ተቀሰሉ :: ያዘ :: ውስደ :: ነሣ : to re ceive; to seize; to carry off; to take.

ለንሥለ: ለበነሣ: to raise.

ንቅዔ: መነጨ : to gush forth.

አንብዓ · አለቀበ : to bewail.

አንቅዓ : አፈሰበ : to pour out.

ነተዓ: በበ :: ተገመበ : to fly; to be split.

129: 12: to drive.

ከልዓ: ከለከለ: to hinder, to forbid.

ከፈዓ: ከፋ: to be bad.

አክፍዓ: አበሪ : to give light.

አውሥለ: መለሰ: to reply, to repeat.

ጠቅዓ: መታ: to beat, to knock.

D79: **D7**: to pierce; to make (a child

or beast) drink out of the hand.

ወ**ዕ**አ : መጣ : to go forth.

ዘርሉ : Hሪ. : to sow.

አደዓሉ: ወረደ: to go down

አደድዓ: ነገረ: to tell.

የሴላ: ገለበጠ: መላለከ: to turn upside down:

to return, to repeat.

ንብዓ: ተመለሰ: to be returned.

7H9: 1H: to possess, to govern.

ገፋ : በደለ : to offend.

myoq: in : in : to touch; to moisten.

ጠርዓ : to call.

ጠቅላ : out : to beat. `

mny: to be brave; to watch, to

persevere.

mag: to adhere to one another.

ጠ**ፍ.**ዓ : ጠ**ፋ** : to perish.

XAG . XA · to hate.

XTO : TRUY: to be thirsty.

አጽምዓ: ሰማ: to hear.

አርዓ : ጉደለ : to lack.

ยากง: ชาวา่: to be hostile.

X'39: (Nf: to be healthy, strong.

ጸ**ፍ**ዓ: ጸፋ: to slap.

ፈቀዓ: ጋረጠ: to prick a vein in the face.

ኩርዓ: መታ :: ቀጠቀጠ : to beat; to crush.

ጉሥላ: ገሣ :: አወጣ : to belch, to roar; to expel.

TRU: Tim: to push, to clash.

ተምዕዓ : ተውጣ : to be angry.

ተሥአላ: ተገፈፈ: to be robbed, stripped.

ቀዓ: ተፈ: to spit.

አቀምጥዓ : አስመለሰ : to cause to return.

ጤዓ: ፈረጠ: to be broken.

89: It is exhale an odour.

quų: አበነፈ: to conquer.

μη: he is to offer up.

ΦΦ: CLCA: U1: to be unripe.

ጥዓ: አሳነሰ: to reduce.

መልካ : ተነሣ : to rise.

አመልአ : አመለበ : to escape.

ம்றாத் : Tina: to be panic-stricken.

ሰስዓ: ሳሳ: to be thin.

ሰብዓ: ሰባት: አደረገ: to make seven.

ረብዓ : አሪት : አደረገ : to make four.

ተምዓ : ተቀጣ : to blame.

ተሰዓ: ዘጠኝ: አደረገ: to make nine.

Tria: unit: to be brave.

ከልዓ : ሁለተ : አደረገ : to make two.

ውው : ደነፋ: to make a show; to exercise in

arms.

ወድዓ : **መረሰ** : to finish.

ተወጵሉ: ተሽነፈ: to be overcome.

PCB: TRZZ: to be in armour.

X39: MNP: to be firm, close, near.

አውሜ: ጠሪ: :: አለ : to call; to speak.

ተጸሰዓ: ghoo: to exert oneself. ተፈፃዓ: gh: አለው: to be gay.

ጉጒዓ : ቸኩለ : to be quick.

ቀ-ቀ-ዓ: አጉበጉበ: to be a hypocrite.

H374: H1): to forget, to stammer.

ገፋተኝ: ገለበጠ: to overthrow.

ጠዕጥዓ: አነፈረ: to boil.

TR379: TMD: to support oneself.

አጠዓዋዓ: አበጀጀ: to cause to restore, to make

helpful.

ተፀዓፅዓ : ተቀ-ጣጠረ :: አንስንነስ : አለ : to

reckon; to become small.

ተማልዓ : ተማኅ : to be full.

THOS: TOOT: to play, to jest.

ተጋብዓ: ተሰበሰበ: to be gathered.

THAS: TRA: to be hostile.

ሳዕልዓ : **ድደ** : ሆነ :: ለምባደ : ሆነ : to be dumb;

to stutter.

ሣዕስዓ: ቅልፕፎፕሬ : አለ : to speak fluently.

9009: Wild: to miscarry.

እንሠአሥለ: አፈላ: to cause to boil.

አስተሪ.ተዓ : ለP : to distinguish, to separate.

አስተናሥአ : አነሳሳ : to excite.

አስተብፅዓ : አመሰገነ :: አደነው : to praise; to admire.

አስተብቀጫ : ማለደ : to rise early.

ምሕክ: ሪ.ሪ.: to be merciful.

ምዕከ : ተውጣ : to be angry.

ስሕከ : ቫከረ : to be rough, coarse.

ንሕከ : ተጨነቀ : to be distressed.

ንአከ : ተጨነዋ : to be distressed.

史仍: **又**们: to crawl.

ሰነበ: አፈረ: to be shy, modest.

ለአከ: ሳከ: to send.

ውለከ: ተo keep in reserve.

outh: 7H: to possess, to govern.

አምለከ: አመለከ: to adore, to worship.

አስሙከ: ተጠጋ :: አስጠጋ : to lean one's head;

to support the head.

ሰበከ : አስተማረ : to teach.

በረከ : ከንደ : to worship.

በተከ: ቀ-ረጠ: to cut, to engrave.

ነሰከ : ነከበ : to bite.

ውሐከ : አንሳሳ : to excite.

ደረከ : ከፋ : to be bad.

ተሐከከ: አዘነ: to regret.

አውከከ : አፈገፈገ : to retire.

ሴከ: አላመጠ: to chew.

ሆከ: አውከ: to stir up, to irritate.

መሰከ: አቀጠነ:: ጎበ: to render thin; to draw.

ወሰሽ : ጨመረ : to add.

ተመልዓከ : አለቃ : ሆነ : to be chief.

inin: iPiP: to shake, to tremble.

ባረከ : አመሰገነ :: ባረከ : to praise; to bless.

ተዓረከ : ተወደጀ : to love one another.

ሰረከ : ጻፈ : to write.

መሃላረከ : oyረከ : to capture.

አስተብረከ : ከገደ : to worship.

ስሕወ: ተበተነ :: ቫ : አለ : to be scattered; to

desire.

ጽሕወ: ነቃ :: ተጋ : to watch; to be awake; to

guard.

ሐደው: **ኖረ** :: **ደነ** :: **ደሰ** : አለው : to dwell; tc

be in good health; to be gay.

THYO: ODAH: to repeat.

NEO: NE: U1: to be desolate.

 $\Phi \Phi : \Phi \to \Phi$ to be deep.

ለሰው: አቨ: to rub between the fingers.

ኃረው: ፈለፈባ:: ዋደደ: to remove the chaff

from the grain; to break.

hto: nd.: to be bright.

ሰጸወ : ቀ-ረጠ :: ባልማል : ሆነ : to decide; to be

a companion.

 $\Phi \Phi \Phi : \Phi \Phi = \Phi \Phi$ to sweat.

ለከው: ፈዘዘ: to feeble, lame, blind.

ሙሐወ : ነዋላ : to pull up.

መሰው: አቀለጠ: to melt.

አስሐወ : አበለበ : to snatch away.

WC: ΠRR: to cut the root, to eradicate.

አር30 : ከፈተ : to open.

ΦΛΦ: Φ•Λ: to roast, to fry.

ቀበው: ገንፋ: to be inflated.

ቀደው: አማረ: to forgive.

አብቀወ: ከፈተ: to open.

ΠΧΦ: λ3ΦΛ4: to sleep.

ተለወ : ተከተለ : to follow.

ዓለው: ውነጀለ: to be faithless.

አተወ : **ነባ** : to enter.

አደው: ተሻገረ :: PH : to traverse; to seize.

አጸወ: **ዘጋ**: to shut up.

ከዓወ : አፈሰበ : to pour out.

ጋረወ : **ወረወረ** : to throw.

HAO: NTI: to scatter.

አድላወ: አደላ: to prefer, be partial.

ΣΛΟ: συμβ:: Τλο: to weigh; to be proper.

ገለው: ጉለበ :: ከፈነ : to pass through a sieve

to veil.

MNO: Mn: to suck.

ፀረወ : ተጣጎ : to be thrown.

ጸቀው: ወጋ :: ጨፈለቀ : to pierce, to wound;

to crush, bruise.

RTO: O73: U1: to be a relation, a party.

ΔΤΦ: ΦΥΥ: to love, to wish.

ለወወ: ተኩረ :: አስተዋለ : to scowl, to pay

attention, to understand.

ከወው : ፈጠን : to hasten.

UΛΦ: **ΛΛ**: to be.

ሐሰወ : አበላ : to lie.

ለበው: አወት :: አስተዋለ : to know; to pay

attention.

σωνω: τω give.

ሰረወ: ነዋለ: to root out, to transplant.

ተሰፈው : ታወካ :: ተቡፈ : አደረገ : to trust; to

hope.

ዋነው: ቸነከረ: to fix, to rivet.

ተ**ት**ደው : ተሳሳል : to be stripped, skinned.

Hood: ப்ப்: to commit adultery.

ተደሰው: ተዘጋጀ: to be prepared.

RODD: ROD: U1: to bleed.

710: \\ \text{77070}: to serve, to attend.

ገጸው : ከፈለ :: ገለጠ :: ባለማል : አደረገ :

to divide; to uncover; to be a companion.

 X^{OD} : $X\dot{T}: \Lambda\Lambda: \text{ to be silent.}$

870: nm: to give.

ፈነው: ሳከ :: ሽን :: አሰናበተ : to send; to ac-

company; to dismiss.

ለውለው: አውለበለበ: to jabber.

TOUCHO: TOPIC: to be married.

ተመንሰው: ድል: ተነሣ: to be conquered.

TOUSTO: OUST: US: to be double.

TOURAD: TINH: to be a hypocrite, false.

συκλω: ΧΦΛ7: to dry up, to wither.

TWC70: Thoo : to be adorned.

ሰንቀው: out: to strike the cithern.

አንጸወ: **ደረ**ዋ: to be dry.

መስተ : to parry a blow.

ΦζΗΦ: Τοσυή: to be grown up, strong.

ወደለወ : አለቀበ : to mourn.

ደንዋው: ደነዋ-ረ: to be deaf.

??XO: 14.7:: 4.HH: to be stingy; to be weak.

እልሐው : ሽንንለ : to defraud.

ጸንአወ : **ቀ-**ለመመ : to twist.

አስፈድለው: መነጠረ: to cut down trees.

ΛΛΛ: to singe, to scorch.

FAO: MNP: to fasten, to protect.

ΓΤΦ : **ΨΥ** : to swim.

አስዋቀው : አለቀሰ : to mourn.

አንሶሰው: ተመላለበ: to walk about.

ኢንጎገው: ባከነ: to wander about.

ተሰመወ: አምን: ሆነ: to be related (by marriage).

ለሀወ : አለቃባ : to mourn.

ተዋሰው: ተፈካከረ: to boast to one another.

ተ**ቃተው**: ተቀ-ታቸ: to bet.

ተአንወ: ወንድም : ሆነ: to be a brother.

አጠዒወ: አመለከ :: አለዘበ : to adore; to soften.

good: ghou: to exert oneself.

አስተደለወ : አዘጋጀ : to prepare.

THH: to redeem.

ተኬነው: ተጠበበ :: ብልህ : ሆነ : to be wise; to

be intelligent.

HIO: YIC: to speak.

LIO: TT: to emit an odour.

ጹወወ : ወዓረከ : to capture.

ሣህለወ: ዝም: አለ: to be silent.

ተባሕተው: ብተኛ: ሆነ: to be lonely.

GORO: in to be white.

አንዋዕደው: አንጋጠጠ: to lift up the eyes to heaven.

አንባሐቀው : አዛጋ : to yawn.

ምዕዘ: ሽተተ: to emit an odour.

ውኅዝ : ፈበሰ : to flow.

TOH: 12: to push, to drive.

1PH: to moulder, to corrode.

30H: 272: to bake.

ሰውዘ: አማረ: to be merciful.

Δ7H: **Φ7**: to pierce.

እንዘ: PH :: ዝመረ : to seize, to take; to

begin.

አረዘ: ለበበ: to dress.

አውገዘ : ለP : to distinguish.

73H: **73H**: to bury.

አቅዘዘ: አፈዘዘ: to weaken.

strong.

አግዛዛ : አረደ : to slaughter.

GH: OAOA: to polish, to besmear.

ተከዘ: ተከዘ: to be anxious. ሕዝዘ: to command.

ሐርገዘ : አረፈ : to rest, to be quiet.

Touchh: Touchh: to support oneself.

አመ3ዘዘ : **አፕንት** : **ያ**ዘ : to insult.

ооноон: An: to rub between the fingers.

አኝዘዘ: አነዘዘ: to walk about.

አንበዘ : ባከነ : to walk about.

RINH: RIA: to support.

ተፈርዛዘ : ደስ : አለው : to be glad.

እስዎዘዘ : ዞረ :: አዞረ : to go round; id. trans.

TJiH: to assist one another.

ተመሕዘ : ተደራ :: ባልንጀራ : ሆነ : to agree; to

keep company.

ГНН :: ЋАДД : to comfort; to en-

courage.

ልሕP: OH: to sweat.

ስሕP: ጠፋ: to perish.

CAP: ntt: to emit an odour.

ርአየ: አኮ to see.

ውዕየ: ተቃጠለ: to burn.

TOP: X1: to become well.

ዕሕP: በሪ.: to shine.

ተንሥየ: ደስ:አለው: to be happy.

3CP : መረጠ : to choose.

ounp: oun: to be evening.

ሰተየ: Mጣ: to drink.

በልዋ : አረጀ :: ጠፋ : to be old.

ንድP: ተቸገረ: to be in trouble.

אחף: חֹאַה :: to be superior; to be

honoured, glorious.

RCP: Rc.: to be pure.

ልርP: አፈሪ: to bear fruit.

3ለዋ: አመሰንነ:: ዘፈነ: to praise; to play

music; to dance.

Aug: to accuse, to calumnists.

ሐሰዋ: ኢቨ: to rub.

32P: oven to choose.

ተዋP: አፋዉ: to grind.

ተሀበP: ተዋሰ: to borrow.

Thire: to be lazy.

37P: nx: to pass the dry season.

ተጸዋ: አዉ: to betroth. ለዋP: 3700 : to repeat.

Anp: Pi to anoint; to accuse.

ፓወረP: ፈት: አለ: to be agreeable.

ήσοΡ: λΛ :: Χδ.: to speak; to call.

WረP: አዋለስ: to alleviate, to hold light.

W P: አጠጣ: to water.

nne: nin: to accuse.

ήΦP: ñt: to grow ripe.

ስደP: አማረ:: ገዛ: to instruct; to govern.

nmP: λησυλή: to cause to return.

ሰ**ፈ** P : ሰ**ፋ** : to sew.

Z^{oo}P: OI: to pierce.

ΖΦP: **ζΦ**: to sprinkle, to irrigate.

Δ9P: INΠΦ: to be fixed.

ζΦP: **ζη**: to be sated, to overflow.

ረደየ: አበደረ: to lend.

ዋለዋ: ፋረደ:: ጠለዋ: to judge; to b: deep,

to dip.

ΦiP: 7H: to possess, to govern.

በከP: አለቀበ: to mourn.

ተፈየ: ታመነ: to be faithful.

in P: in to touch.

አንከP: ከፈለ: to divide, to separate.
አንበP: HNHN: to molest, to annoy.

38P: 301: to tear out.

14. to blow, to winnow.

ዓረየ: ተካከለ: to be equal, uniform.

አበP: አምቢ: አለ: to refuse.

አከP: ከፋ: to be bad.

አደየ: ከፈለ: to divide.

አፀP: ተላ : to be wormy.

ከረP: **ቀ-**ፈረ: to dig.

ከፈየ: በቃ : to suffice.

አውቀየ: ቀ-ረጠ: to cut, to engrave.

ORP: Cool to add, to increase.

Hip: joung: to covet.

ደንቦ: መሳ : to dig.

RAP: d\danger1: to seek.

ROP: RORO: to flog.

POOP: **Journ**: to be ill.

7AP: **AP**: to distinguish.

77P: T7H: to be possessed, to be subject

Mode : To be hungry.

አጥረP: **TH**: to possess, to govern.

MAP: to be deep, to dip.

NOP: NOODO: to be twisted, crooked.

RNP: PY: to swim.

እውP: ነጎረ: to speak.

RRP: RRR: U1: it is autumn.

እገP: አሰበ: to flourish.

 $\Delta \Lambda P$: $\Lambda \dot{P}$: to distinguish.

ልረP: አፈሪ: to bear fruit.

4. P: 114. Λ: to divide.

ጉተየ: አጠፋ: to extinguish, to destroy.

ከ-ነP: ካበ: to accumulate.

ተሐየቦ: ቸል: አለ: to neglect, disdain.

አየየ: ከረ: to sow; to go round.

TP: TITE to fly, to flee.

ሰለP: አሰበ: to think.

ሐወን P: አሰረ: to bind, to curse.

አሰቦ: አጠፋ: to extinguish, to destroy.

TOUT: to wish.

Wፈ**P** : **አደነ** :: **ወ**ድ **3ኒ**ት : **አደረ**ን : to heal; to

cure, deliver.

WiP: And: to have mercy.

ረሰቦ: አደረገ: to do, to make.

ተረሰዋ: ተጸረረ: to be earned.

ቀነዋ: ሰነበተ : to stay, to remain.

TIMP: TIZ: to converse.

ዓሰ**ቦ** : ሰጠ : to give.

ዓረየ: አስተካከለ: to make equal, uniform.

ተዓሰዋ: ከ-ሪ.: to be proud.

TOAP: TPNA: to receive.

ጠሰዋ: አጠፋ: to extinguish.

ጸለP: ለመነ :: ተናገረ : to beg, to ask; to speak

ጻጸP: ንጹሕ: ሆነ: to be innocent.

አብለP: በዘበH: to plunder.

አመስធף: አመነሽ: to ventilate, to winnow.

አመክነቦ: አመካኝ: to protest, to find an excuse.

አርሰቦ: አሳረፈ: to set at rest. ተዓርወቦ: ተቍጣ: to be angry.

HCTP: TATE: to curse; to rebuke.

ECOP: OD: to pierce.

RThP: XOA7: to wither, to fade.

UNAP: TOP: U1: to be dust.

ጉርዓP: አረደ: to slaughter.

7-37P: HIP: to be slow, to delay.

7-32P: HIP: to be slow, to delay.

TXTHP: XOA7: to wither, to be dry.

አስተስረየ: አቃላለ: to lighten, to forgive.

አስተርአየ: ታየ: to appear.

TAUP: TEMOT: to play, to jest.

AUP: AUI: to shave.

^ጉ₽: Μጕ-^: to foretell, to soothsay.

Toy P: λογ CT: to explain, to predict.

ተሳለየ : አዘገመ : to walk slowly.

ΨΦP: to torment.

ሳቀ-P: ባከነ: to wander about.

አዋረቦ: • ጠበሰ :: ሰዋ : to roast, to offer up.

ተባረP: ተፈራረP: to be done alternately.

ተነሱP: አዋለለ: to make light, to forgive.

ወሐP: ነበኝ: to explore.

TPIP: TUNDT: to play, to jest.

Php: nd.: to shine.

THTP: TOYING: to take.

TARP: AGAILL: to plunder.

አስተዋደየ: አጣለ: to accuse.

ΛΛP: ΛP : to distinguish.

አሌለP: ማለደ: to be early.

σου P: λλλ : to illtreat.

ሲሰየ: መንበ: to nourish.

ሴረ P: አለለ: to colour, to sprinkle

ΛP: to distinguish.

ΦΦP· 16.7: to grudge, to be a miser.

*NNP: HZ: to go round.

TIP: TO fly, to flee.

ገገ**ቦ**: ሳተ: to err.

አንጌገP: ተቀበዘበΗ: to swerve, to fidget.

ተመኳሰቦ: ተመኰሽ። ሞክሽ: ሆነ: to be homo-

nymous; id.

ተሰካተየ: ተማማለ: to swear to one another.

TO-FRP: TO-FX: to walk haughtily.

አማዕሰዋ: ወነጀດ: to be false, deceitful.

አናሕበР: አቃለለ: to forgive, to overlook.

ጻሕየP: አረሙ : to weed.

ጎድ ተደኅደለ : to be guided, to be smooth.

TOOR: OTHER to advise, to counsel.

ርአደ: ተንቀጠቀጠ: to tremble.

NOR: AP: to distinguish.

3ዕደ : አከበረ : to honour.

ክሀደ: ካደ: to deny.

ውኅደ: ጉደለ: to want, to be deficient.

TRUE: Aooi: to believe.

ተግህደ: ተገለጠ: to be uncovered, visible.

አብደ: ከነፈ :: ደነቀረ : to be foolish.

nne: nne: RF: to be heavy; to in-

crease; to be strong.

THOUR: to be related.

TROOK: to be coupled, yoked.

32. X.R.: to slay, to slaughter.

ሰየደ: አንፀበረቀ: to shine, to sparkle.

Aoug: to be accustomed.

nng: nng: to adore.

nre: nre: to beat, to bend.

24.R: to be in the forenoon.

NZ.R: to be cold.

179: U.S.: to depart.

አህደ: አንድ: አደረገ: to be one, to unite.

አዋደ: አበረ: to bind.

чፀደ: አጨደ: to reap.

ΦΛR: to beget.

OTE: OTE: to take.

DLY: DLY: to descend.

XOUR: NOUR: to yoke together.

ሊዋደ: ወደደ: to love.

42. to judge.

MRR: NAT: to be hard, cruel. **MRR: MRR:** to remove, to expel.

አውደደ: አሰማማ : to conciliate, to make agree.

7ARR: Dillm.: obducere.

18: 188: to burn.

ЧК: Фор : to rob, to plunder.

The: Zim: to tread, to trample.

PR: to walk round.

CR: hin: to surround.

that: to finish, to end.

* oung: hour: to train, to bargain.

UDZZ: MNMN: to hasten; to trot.

አለደ: አከማቸ: to gather.

ASS: to strengthen, to give comfort.

OAR: OUZX: to choose.

Took: 4-4(1): to cut, to decide.

ሐርበያ: ሽፈተ :: ተደላደላ :: አበያ : to rebel; to

be led; to be foolish.

ተአጓገደ: አንግደ: Ui: to be strange, a guest.

4. R.4. R: to increase, to multiply.

ጉድጉደ : አሰረ : to tie, to bind.

TRIR: out: to beat.

አንጉድጉደ : አሰማ :: ተሰማ : to cause to hear; to

be heard.

There: to swear to one another.

ተዋረደ: ተዋረደ: to be lowered, humbled.

TIPR: AM: to hasten.

አስተዋደደ : አሰማማ : to conciliate, to make agree.

Tr7: 120: to be deficient.

ዓርገ: መጣ: to go forth.

THOY: MAP: U1: to be a protector.

ሰመነ : አደፈረበ : to disturb.

327: TO: to leave.

συζη: to besmear.

መዘገ: ነጠዋ: to snatch away.

አለገ: ረጋ: to curdle.

አረገ: አረጀ: to be old.

ፈለገ: ከፈለ: to divide.

ፈገገ : ከረፋ : to stink.

ኤገ: አከማት: to assemble.

87: To bear a grudge.

327: **PM**: to punish.

ሰንን: ውጠ: to limit, to define.

THOT: 073: U1: to be related.

ደሰገ: አንድ: ሆነ: to be assembled.

ተጸውገ: ከፋ.: to be bad.

አንገለገ: ተሰበሰበ: to be assembled

2377: On: to limit, to define.

ደግደገ: ነሳ: to be lean.

TION: THOUS: to be related.

K27: Lo assign an allowance.

ከሕጠ : ጫረ : to scratch. ውረብ · ዋጠ : to swallow.

ዕዕበ : አጻፈበ : to sweeten.

ሰብጠ : አበጠ : to swell.

ሰፈጠ: **8ፈ**: to write.

Ann: Ann: to cover.

አምሰጠ: አመለጠ: to escape.

አስለጠ: አሰለጠነ:: ፈጠነ: to permit; to hasten.

አስበጠ: አስታረበ: ስንቅ: ያዘ: to offer a meal;

to take provisions.

ሰፈጠ : ሽፈጠ :: አባበለ : to prevaricate.

ቀሰጠ : **ቀ**ሰጠ : to steal.

አበጠ : አፈነ :: መለሰ :: ከበበ : to cover with

the hands; to return; to surround.

ወፈጠ: ተቀ-በ: to be hot.

Hnm: out: to beat, to knock.

Xnm: CLnm: to seize.

ΠΠΠ: **PRR**: to break.

አቍጠጠ: አቀጠነ: to render thin.

עm: אוֹאָה : to deceive.

ሚጠ: መለሰ: to turn.

Ч.М: to insert, to repair.

ሰለጠ : መረሰ : to finish.

OAM: AOM: to change.

ሰንፈጠ : **ጻ**ፈ : to write.

ቀፕቀጠ : ቀጠቀጠ : to hammer. አንቀጥቀጠ : አንቀጠቀጠ : to tremble.

አ**ን**ሶጠጠ : ስቅፕፕ : አደረገ : to shudder.

ተሣየጠ: ተወደጀ: to sell one's friendship.

UN: 124: to pierce, to sting.

ዋልጰጰ : ዋረጠጠ : to bite.

አሕፀ: **ጎጠ**: to strip, to peel off.

ምሕፀ : ከሽ : to flee.

ስሕሀ: ተፕለዋለዋ: to be inundated.

ርሕህ : ውዛ : to sweat.

ንሕአ : አረፈ : to rest, to be quiet.

ድሜህ: ተጠናከለ: to stumble.

ቀብሀ: አጣ: to want, to fail.

148: CAP: to be dry.

16.X: nin: to flee, to depart.

ΕΦ : το be heard.

ሴረፀ : **ፈጨ** : to grind.

ሰነፀ : በሪ : to work.

ΛουΧ: ΛουΘ: UPi: to be a leper.

Wረፀ: ውጣ: to go forth.

ΣΌΘ: Then: to be hot.

278: 27m: to trample, to kick.

Φ3Χ: ΗΛΛ: to jump.

ዋፈጸ: ገለጠ: to uncover, to detect.

በቍX: ሤረ: to scrape.

አዕዋጸ: አሰናከለ: to cause to stumble, to push.

ደጉጸ : ጉሰማ :: ጉንጠ : to push, to strike; to

hurt.

ፈላጸ : ፈላጠ : to divide.

ጉረፀ : ነጥበ : to dress the hair.

hu: LA: to be deficient.

σοχ: σομη: to be sour.

ΠΧ: ΛP: to distinguish.

'! X : መታ :: ፈሳ :: ነፋ : to beat; to break

wind; to blow.

ΨX: ηΠ: to make amends.

CO: CO: to run.

ΜΦΧ: '10'5': to explore.

አመጉጸ: አዋለለ: to render small.

TZPR: T76.: to train, to tame.

QUUX: houn: to be disobedient.

זסטא: ארצה: to be in need.

ገሠጸ: ሙከረ :: ተቍጣ : to advise; to rebuke.

ተገPX: አገጠጠ: to cause to go outside, to extract.

ገገፀ : አፈገፈገ :: ተግ : አለ : to withdraw, to

shrink; to stop.

ሐንፈፀ: ጠረጠረ: to doubt.

R378: R370: to be astonished.

አሜፈርዓፀ : ዘለለ : to jump.

ተሞንፀ: ነጠበ:: ተውጣ: to drip; to rebuke.

ተባረፀ: አሸበረዋ: to be resplendent.

ተባየጸ : ተሰማማ :: ባልንጀሪ : ሆነ : to agree

with one another; to be a companion.

ተጋየጸ: አጊጠ: to be well dressed.

አስተሐPX: አቦ: አስተዋለ: to see; to pay atten-

tion.

ለከፈ : ስሕወ : ጉድዓ : **ነገ : ነገ :** (B. 49 vo) to touch, to stroke.

መክፈ : ጉብልያ : H : ወገረት : (A. 14 b, B. 69 vo) to bandage.

ተተስሐ : ተሳተፈ : ተሐወለ : ብ : ተቀላቀለ : (B. 58 vo) to be mixed.

ቀሠፈ : ገረፈ : (A. 10 c; B. 59 vo) to scourge.

ተሳተፈ: ተዋሀደ: ብ: አንድ: ሆነ: to be associated.

ተነፃፈ : ብ : ረገፈ : (A. 13 a; B. 60 vo) to fall off.

1ጸፈ : በ : እነጸፈ : (B. 58 vo) to stretch, to lay out.

አጠፈ : H : አትአመነው : (A. 11 c; B. 69 vo) to confess, to believe.

ከልተፈ : ሐመ P : ብ : አበረ : (B. 62 vo) to bind.

ተወከፈ : H : ተዋበለ : (A. 76) to receive.

ተዓዋፈ : H : ተሰና ነገለ : (A. 7b) to stumble, to take offence.

ገደል : መዝ : ዘ : በነሐለ : (A. 6 c) to throw.

ጸረፈ : H : ተሳደበ : (A. 6 c; B. 53 ro) to insult.

JUST OUT.

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MISCELLANEOUS COMMUNICATIONS

THE HISTORICAL POSITION OF RAMANANDA

I have read Dr. Farquhar's article 1 on "The Historical Position of Rāmānanda" with interest not unmixed with a certain amount of surprise. He has devoted a great deal of attention to the differences between the teachings of Rāmânanda and Rāmânuja, but very little to the points on which they are similar. He has, however, made the following admissions:—

- 1. That Rāmânanda came from the south.
- 2. That he used Rāmânuja's Śrī-bhāṣyā.
- 3. That the tilakas of the two sects are similar.

I think that these three facts are sufficient to confirm the popular tradition that Rāmânanda was originally a follower of Rāmânuja, but subsequently, owing to his broader views on religious and social questions, founded a separate and more liberal sect. It requires no elaborate reasoning to show that when a new order or sect is established some differences in the forms and rituals will arise; but to infer from these differences that a separate sect existed, to which Rāmânanda belonged, and which is now extinct, is in my opinion greatly stretching the imagination.

With regard to the presence of advaita elements in the teachings of Rāmânanda, tradition says that this was one of the differences which led Rāmânanda to sever his connexion with the main sect. It is believed that in his days the *Dwaitins* and the *Adwaitins* were quarrelling with each other over their differences, and that blows were being exchanged with very great frequency. Rāmânanda tried to adopt a middle course to bring about harmony to which the intolerant leaders would not assent. Rāmânanda then founded his sect, which

is more liberal with regard to देतादेतवाद, with regard to caste, and with regard to rigidity in matters of forms and ritual, contending most vehemently that the Doctrine of Love recognizes no such narrow-mindedness. He, however, never failed to acknowledge that his teachings were derived from Rāmânuja, for the latter's name is daily pronounced by every pious Rāmânandī in the गुरु-शिष्य-परम्परा.

Dr. Farquhar has also made several incorrect statements, to one or two of which I should like to make a brief reference. In one place he has not reproduced the *mantras* of the two sects correctly.¹ They should be:—

- 1. राङ् रामाय नमः rān Rāmāya namalı; and
- 2. श्री श्रीमन्नारायणाय नमः ōm Śrīman-Nārāyaṇāya namaḥ,

instead of Oin Rāmāya namah and Oin namo Nārāyaṇāya. It must be noted that a Rāmânandī believes that the Lord's name "Rāma" is the same as ōin of the Brahman, and that consequently the use of the praṇava (ōin) with the Rāmamantra is tautology.

Another incorrect statement is that "there is no evidence that he [Rāmânanda] modified the social rules of caste in the slightest." A visit to any of the akhāṛās of Rāmânandī Bairāgīs will convince that Śūdras of all classes are as freely admitted and invested with the sacred thread as the twiceborn. Since no social reformer who preached Love could adopt a militant attitude and Hindūs have never been actively proselytizing, few, if any, admissions have been made from among those who belonged to other creeds, but Śaivas and Ācārīs are always reinitiated with great pleasure, and the popular belief "once a guru, always a guru" does not find great favour with a Rāmânandī.

I hope to be able to deal with the subject in greater detail later on, but meanwhile I hasten to remove some of the misapprehensions which the article is sure to create. I must

also put in an emphatic protest against the use of the word "harem", in referring to Sītā's captivity in Lankā. In the first place, no reference has been made to any passage which says that she was ever lodged among Rāvaṇa's queens; secondly, the word "harem" carries with it such vicious associations that its employment in connexion with one whom every Hindū regards as a paragon of virtues is, for obvious reasons, objectionable.

SĪTĀ RĀM.

MUTHIGANJ, ALLAHABAD, INDIA. June 29, 1920.

THE SOMA PLANT

I have read with interest Mr. Havell's short paper on "What is Soma?" published in the July number of this valuable Journal. His identification of Soma with Eleusine coracana or $r\bar{a}gi$ is based. I am afraid, on grounds which may be supplemented by others of a more important character. Mr. Havell's impression is that Soma (the plant) resembled cow's udders, but I have not been able to find out the text to which he may have referred. It may be that he refers to R.V. 8, 9, 19, which has been noted by Professor Macdonell as authority for his statement that the shoots swelling give milk, like cows with their udders. This clearly refers to the shape taken by the strainer when the shoots are placed inside it and the juice is strained out. This, therefore, does not help us to identify the plant itself.

Mr. Havell states that the plant itself had a likeness to the fingers of a man's hand. In order to prove this, the original text, if any, on which this statement is based ought to be fully discussed. At the same time, we must remember that even if any text proves this statement to be correct, it will not be of any importance in identifying the plant. If Mr. Havell is referring to the fact that Soma is described as having parvas; even then this fact alone does not lead to identification of the

plant, but taken with other facts this might be utilized for the purpose of an identification. The colour of Soma has been variously described, and the internal evidence of the texts is that the different terms refer to the colour of the plant, or the drink itself at different stages of preparation. The word harih probably means a pleasant colour, although the word has been generally translated as "tawny". The exact translation requires discussion, but in any case its colour is not such that it will lead to an identification of the plant. The facts therefore on which Mr. Havell relies are that Soma has parvas, it is tawny in colour, and that it grows on mountains. These three elements are very general, and are by no means enough to identify the plant.

Mr. Havell seems to believe that the substitutes for Soma given in the Satapatha Brahmana are plants akin to Soma, and he refers to dub and syenahrita. I believe that in order to ascertain the propriety of substitution we must refer to the Yagnaparibhasa Sutra, and on the basis of the rules prescribed in that work we may be in a position to appreciate the reasons for adoption of particular plants as substitutes. It will be obvious to scholars that simply on the basis of elements utilized by Mr. Havell, it would indeed be difficult to arrive at the identification of Soma with ragi.

I propose that the following facts may be taken into consideration in connexion with the subject under discussion:—

- (1) Svetaketu Auddalaki says that the name of the plant is Usana (or Asana) (Sat. Br., V. 1, 1, 12).
- (2) The name Soma was given to the plant after the Vaidik people came to know Asana or Usana.
 - (3) Soma originally was amongst the Kiratas.
 - (4) Amongst the Kiratas u and a were articular prefixes.
 - (5) Therefore Usana or Asana resolves itself into Sana.
- (6) According to the Satapatha Brahmana, Uma means the inner portion of the plant Sana. "Inside there is a layer of hemp, for the purpose that it may blaze up. And as to its being a layer of hemp, the inner membrane (Amnion) of the

womb from which Prajapati was born consists of Uma, and the outer membrane (Chorion) of hemp." (Sat. Br.)

- (7) The Tanguts call hemp by the name Dschoma.
- (8) In Dahuria, the Mughals call hemp by the name Schema.
- (9) The Tibetan for hemp is Somaratsa.
- (10) In Chinese Si-ma and Tsu-ma are the names of the male and female hemp plants.
- (11) Sir George Watt says that the narcotic is really the female tsu-ma.
- (12) Hemp = A.S. han-p = Old Norse hanp-r, Lat. cannabis = Low German (also High German) hanaf; Greek $\kappa avra = Sk$ Sana.
- (13) Soma has a dark skin (R.V., 7, 42; 9, 107, 5; Nirukta, 1, 7, 20).
 - (14) The prepared liquid is Arunah, Arushah, Sonah, etc.
- (15) Soma is called Amsu (a ray) or that which is full of rays or soft hairs or having soft sprays or twigs. Cf. Sumerian en-zu = Moon = Soma.
 - (16) It is called Varāha (Nirukta V., 1, 4).
- (17) It is food for cows, it is a medicinal plant, the plant has a very strong and nauseating smell ($v\bar{u}jagandhyam$).
 - (18) Its habitat is Mujavan.
- (19) Soma has the same habitat as that of Kushtha (Ath.V., 19, 39, 5). The north of the Himalayas is the habitat of Kushtha (Ath. V., V, 4, 8); Kushtha is Saussurea. Therefore, Soma's habitat is north of the Himalayas.
- (20) Mujavan is one of the hills to the north of the Himalayas, south of the Kailas ranges, and is very probably the same as Mem-nam-nyim-re, south of Gurla Mandhata.
- (21) The use of the drink results in the protrusion of the stomach.
 - (22) The preparation of Soma is similar to that of Bhang.
 - (23) The deity Mahadeva is a lover of Bhang.
- (24) Bhâng is used by the modern representatives of the Vaidik people in the celebration of the worship of the goddess Durga, which is a Soma sacrifice.

- (25) Bhâng is sacred to Hindus by tradition.
- (26) The medicinal and other properties of Bhang should be discussed in connection with the present question and must be compared with those of Soma if any can be gleaned from Vaidik sources.
- (27) An attempt may also be made to ascertain if Ayurvedic texts give us any clue to the identification. I am myself not very sanguine about success in this direction, as great scholars have been misled by the following Ayurvedic text: "Shyâmalâmlâ cha nishpatrâ kheerinee twachi mângshalâ. Sleshmalâ vamanee ballee Somâkhyâ chhâgabhojanam" and, further, because Ayurvedic works give fanciful descriptions of various kinds of Soma.

From what has been stated above, may we not conclude that the weight of evidence is in favour of the identification of Soma with Cannabis (Bhâng).

I beg to draw the attention of the readers of this paper to my paper on the Soma plant, which has been very kindly published by the editors of the *Bulletin* of the Indian Rationalistic Society of Calcutta.

BRAJA LAL MUKHERJEE.

RAJASEKHARA ON THE HOME OF PAISACI

Some years ago there was a discussion in the Journal of the German Oriental Society (vols. lxiv and lxvi) between Sir George Grierson and myself about the home of Paiśācī. I am not going to repeat the arguments urged by either of us; the result would merely be the old one, that we should agree to disagree. I only want to draw the attention of scholars to a statement which I have lately come across, and which is of importance as being the oldest attempt at localizing the language of the Brhatkathā of which we have any knowledge.

Rājašekhara, who lived about A.D. 900, has written a rhetorical work, the Kāvyamīmāṃsā, which has been edited as No. 1 of the Gaekwad's Oriental Series by C. D. Dalal and

R. Anantakrishna Shastry, Baroda, 1916. Here two stanzas are given on p. 51 in which we are told where Sanskrit, Prakrit, Apabhraniśa. and Bhūtabhāṣā were supposed to be spoken. Bhūtabhāṣā cannot be anything but the same Bhūtabhāṣā in which, according to Bāṇa, the Bṛhatkathā was written. About this language we learn—

Āvantyāl! Pāriyātrāl! saha Dasapurajair Bhūtabhāṣāṃ bhajante.

"The Avanti-people, those who live about Pariyātra, together with those born in Daśapura, favour the Bhūtabhāṣā."

There cannot be any doubt about the identification of these local names. The Āvantyāḥ are the inhabitants of the country about Ujjain; Pāriyātra is the range from which the Chambal and Betwa Rivers take their rise, and Daśapura is the present Mandasor to the north of Ujjain.

We are thus taken to the same locality where the old Brhatkathā was believed to have been composed.²

Rājaśekhara does not give the stanzas in question as his own, but as a quotation. As long as we are not able to verify them it will not be possible to date them. At all events, they take us back to an earlier date than any statement made by later grammarians, and we are, I think, justified in inferring that in the ninth century the country in the neighbourhood of the Vindhya range was considered as the home of the old dialect of the Brhatkathā.

Mārkaṇdeya in his short notes on Paiśācī quotes the Bṛhatkathā under the head of Kekayapaiśācikī. In his times, therefore, there must have been a different tradition about the Bṛhatkathā. In this connexion I wish to remind you of the fact that M. Lacôte, in his excellent study on Guṇāḍhya, has made it probable that the Kāśmīrī versions of the Bṛhatkathā are not based on the old work itself, but on a later compilation, in which other dialects may have been substituted for the ancient Bhūtabhāṣā. If that should be the

¹ Bombay Gazetteer, I, ii, p. 135. ² Cf. ZDMG, vol. lxiv, pp. 95 ff.

case my own view would be strengthened that the term Paiśācī has been transferred by later grammarians to forms of speech which are different from the old tongue in which the original Bṛhatkathā was composed.

STEN KONOW.

SHAHBANDAR AND BENDAHARA

As Mr. W. H. Moreland in his recent paper, "The Shahbandar in the Eastern Seas" (JRAS., October, 1920), seems to have made out a good case for the conclusion that these two titles and offices were sometimes confounded by European writers, it appears to me desirable to point out the real distinction between them. I confine my remarks almost entirely to the State of Malacca, which may be taken as typical of the Malay Peninsula, leaving aside the Javanese and other instances cited in the paper. At Malacca in the fifteenth century the Chief Minister of State under the Sultan was the Bendahara, as the title is now spelt in standard Malay. In an appendix to the so-called Code of Malacca (Newbold, British Settlements in the Straits of Malacca, vol. ii, p. 312) we are told: "The Bandahara is he who rules the peasantry, the army, and those dependent on the State. His sway extends over all islands, and it is he who is the king's lawgiver."

According to the Sejarah Melayu (an early seventeenth century Malay "history"), the Bendahara was chosen by the Sultan from either of two great families, one of which was supposed to be a junior branch of the reigning house. At court "the order of sitting was to be, first the descendants of the royal family, then the bandahara", etc. (I quote from Leyden's translation of this history, published under the title Malay Annals, p. 104.) According to the same source, it was with the Bendahara that the Portuguese negotiated on their first arrival at Malacca. The Malay history is not to be relied on for particular historical facts like that; but there is no reason to doubt that it correctly represents the status of the Bendahara. In modern times the office has survived, always as a very high one. In Perak, for instance, the

Běndahara is the first of the Four High Officers of State. Pahang is ruled by a descendant of the Běndaharas of the old Johor empire. In fact, the Běndahara was the Grand Vizier, and almost a minor royalty. In Malacca no other person except him and the children and grandchildren of the king was "permitted to wear a kris having a golden handle weighing nearly a bunkal without express permission from the king" (Newbold, loc. cit., pp. 232-3).

His title is of Sanskrit origin, representing bhāṇḍāra (for bhāndāgāra), "a storehouse." The office, therefore, unlike that of Shahbandar, goes back to the ancient days of the ascendancy of Indian influence in the Malay Archipelago. How did a Sanskrit word for a storehouse become a Malay title for the highest officer of State? Presumably Bendahara was originally preceded by the title Dato' (afterwards raised to Raja), and the combination meant "Chief of the storehouse". In other words, he was the Lord High Treasurer, and (as has happened elsewhere with Treasurers) he became the Chief Minister. In the Sĕjarah Mĕlayu we find the actual duties of storekeeper delegated to a subordinate official styled Pěnghulu Běndahari (from the Sanskrit bhāndārin, "keeper of a treasury, steward"), whom we may perhaps style the "Chief Steward". The same work tells us that he was at the head of the other stewards and royal servants. including the collectors of revenue, and that the Shahbandar (or, it may be, Shahbandars) was (or were) under his charge (Malay Annals, p. 104, the translation gives the plural, but the Malay original is ambiguous). The Code of Malacca (Newbold, loc. cit., p. 265), under the heading of weights and measures, says that these "and the bazaar regulations appertain to the Shahbandar's department. All nakhodas (captains) of junks, of baloks (a sort of boat), and strangers of every grade must apply to the Shahbandar in case of infliction of wounds, or of fighting and quarrelling. People belonging to the town are amenable to its jurisdiction". (I think we should probably read "his jurisdiction".)

248 ERRATA

It appears from this that the Shahbandar was a subordinate of a subordinate of the Bendahara. He was the local town governor and harbour master of a port town to which strangers commonly resorted, and a great part of his duties consisted in dealing with foreign merchants, receiving tolls, etc. To this day, in Perak, there is a Shahbandar whose predecessors were "a sort of harbour master, customs officer, protector of immigrants, and superintendent of trade" (Wilkinson, Papers on Malay Subjects, History, pt. ii, p. 81). But whereas the Raja Běndahara is the first in rank of the Four High Officers of State, the Dato' Bandar (short title for Shahbandar) is but the sixth of the Eight who come after the Four. In my time (1890-5) the European harbour master at Malacca was in Malay called Tuan Shahbandar. It appears from a passage in the Sĕjarah Mĕlayu (Malay Annals, pp. 332-3) that a Kĕling (Tamil or Telugu) merchant became Shahbandar at Malacca circa 1500. He is stated to have been almost as wealthy as the Bĕndahara, who also did some highly successful trading on his own account; they are reported to have compared notes on the subject of their respective fortunes! This is a concrete case illustrating the principle suggested by Mr. Moreland, that leading foreign merchants were sometimes taken into the local bureaucracy. It is perhaps not unreasonable to conjecture that before becoming Shahbandar this wealthy Kĕling merchant had been the recognized head of the local Këling community, a sort of consul for his fellow-countrymen.

C. O. BLAGDEN.

ERRATA

I wish to correct the following errors in the last two quarterly issues of JRAS.:—

Остовек, 1920, рр. 535-63.

The interesting account of Mr. Ivanow about the manuscripts preserved at the shrine of Imām Rizā (Riḍā) at Meshhed contains many entries from which it is far from clear what works are meant, but the following corrections may elucidate some obscure places:—

p. 543. No. 286 is the well-known work of Murtadā lithographed in Teherān, and in a more accessible edition, Cairo, 1325 л.н. (four volumes).

p. 549. No. 13. Insān al-'Uyūn is correct; it is a well-known biography of the prophet, and the remainder should read سيرة حلبي.

Nos. 38-9. تاريخ أبى الفداء. No doubt the Constantinople print 1286 A.H. (in four volumes). No. 41. No doubt the work of Qazwīnī.

- p. 550. Nos. 47-8. فَوَات الْوَفْيَات. Probably the Cairo edition of 1283 A.H.
- p. 551. No. 71. آاريخ يميني. The history of Mahmud of Ghazna.

There are many other titles of books which by careful scrutiny could be identified, but the whole library appears to be very disappointing when compared with the libraries in Constantinople.

p. 123, 224b, read محمد بن

p. 124, 226a, " المعانى

In several cases the vowels have been placed a trifle sideways from the consonants, but this should be no impediment to students.

F. KRENKOW.

FONDATION DE GOEJE

- I. Le Conseil de la Fondation, n'ayant subi aucun changement depuis le mois de novembre, 1919, est composé comme suit: MM. C. Snouck Hurgronje (président), M. Th. Houtsma, T. J. De Boer, K. Kuiper, et C. Van Vollenhoven (secrétaire-trésorier).
- II. Dans l'année 1920 la Fondation a fait paraître, chez l'éditeur Brill, à Leyde, sa sixième publication: Die Richtungen der islamischen Koranauslegung, par I. Goldziher (édition augmentée des conférences tenues par l'auteur à Upsal en 1913).
- III. Les exemplaires disponibles des six ouvrages publiés par la Fondation sont en vente chez l'éditeur E. J. Brill au profit de la Fondation: No. 1, Reproduction photographique du manuscrit de Leyde de la Ḥamâsah d'Al-Buḥturî (1909), au prix de 96 florins hollandais; No. 2, Le Kitâb al-Fâkhir d'Al-Mufaḍdal, publié par C. A. Storey (1915), au prix de 6 florins; No. 3, Streitschrift des Ġazâlî gegen die Bâṭinijja-Sekte, par I. Goldziher (1916) au prix de 4,50 florins; No. 4, Bar Hebraeus's Book of the Dove, together with some chapters from his Ethikon, translated by A. J. Wensinck (1919), au prix de 4,50 florins; No. 5, De opkomst van het Zaidietische Imamaat in Yemen, door C. Van Arendonk (1919), au prix de 6 florins; No. 6, Die Richtungen der islamischen Koranauslegung, par I. Goldziher (1920), au prix de 10 florins.
- IV. Le haut montant des frais de publication du No. 6 a obligé le conseil à disposer par anticipation de ses moyens de quelques années à venir.

Novembre, 1920.

NOTICES OF BOOKS

LA FORMATION DE 14 LANGUE MARATHE. By Jules Bloch. 432 pages. Paris, 1919.

The first half of this work, dealing with the Marāṭhī language as a whole, was completed in the year 1914 as a thesis for the Doctorate of Letters in the University of Paris, and, though not published at the time, was privately circulated by its author to a few fortunate friends. The War interrupted its further progress, but the whole, including the second part. consisting of an Etymological Index, has now been placed at the disposal of students, and we are in a position publicly to congratulate Monsieur Bloch on the successful accomplishment of a fine piece of scholarship.

Without any doubt this is the most important book dealing with the Modern Indian languages that has appeared since the publication of Hoernle's Grammar of the Gaudian Languages in 1880. During the forty years that have elapsed since then there has been collected much information which was not available to that great scholar or to Beames, the third volume of whose Comparative Grammar appeared in 1879; and a flood of light has been thrown on the earlier history of Indo-Aryan tengues by the researches of such men as Meillet, Pischel, and Wackernagel. M. Bloch has availed himself of all this, and the result is the work now before us.

There are two methods of approaching the subject of the philology of Indian languages. We may make an intensive study of one particular language, as Hoernle did of his "Eastern Hindī" (now generally known as Bhojpurī), and consider its connexion with the other languages of the family; or we may follow in the steps of Caldwell and Beames, and

¹ Space will not permit me again to refer to this admirable Index, which demands a whole article to itself. But I must here draw special attention to it. It does for Marāṭhī what Horn's Grundriss der neupersischen Etymologie does for Persian.

devote our energies to a wide and general review of the whole subject. The latter is, I need hardly point out, the preferable course if it can be accomplished. The author writes from a higher standpoint, and can take a wider view of the land which he has to map out; but too little is known of the earlier history of the modern Indian languages—even of some of the more important—to permit it to be done with complete success. On the other hand, if Hoernle's example is followed, as has been done by M. Bloch, the subject is necessarily approached from one side only, and the general aspect is subordinated to the particular. Nevertheless, if our ultimate aim is a complete conspectus of the whole field of Indo-Aryan philology, such works as these latter are essential preliminaries. Till each important language has been intensively studied we shall be unable to compare them on equal terms. Apart, therefore, from its undoubted merits as a scientific account of Marāthī, this book is an important step forward towards the goal to which all students of Indo-Aryan languages look forward.

M. Bloch will be the last to expect universal acceptance for every statement in his book. It is founded on detailed and minute examination of several thousand words and forms, of many of which the origin and explanation are open to discussion. Considerations of space prohibit a detailed criticism, and in this notice I propose to deal principally with points in which I am not in entire agreement with him. From this it is not to be understood that I differ from his conclusions as a whole, or that, mosquito-like, I am assuming the character of a chidranvēṣin. On the contrary, I hope that I shall make it plain that I am dealing with a volume of solid learning, which should in future be at the right hand of every student of the subject.

In several instances the author meets with forms difficult to explain, and treats them as cases of borrowing from other dialects. In this I am usually in agreement with him, though I suspect that my view of what a dialect is differs from what

he and other writers mean by the term. Usually dialects are looked upon as local affairs. They are considered as being peculiar to some special tract of country, and a borrowed term is considered as imported from some outside language. No doubt this does frequently occur, but I think that the theory of outside borrowing is often unnecessary. • For instance, two or three dialects of Marāthī may be spoken in the same village. We have something like this in Europe, where the language of the educated differs from that of the peasant; but the state of affairs is much more pronounced in India, where dialect is influenced by caste as much as by locality. In the same place there may be Karhādī, Sangamêśvarī, Kuḍālī, Dāldī, Chitpāvanī, and what not, each spoken by a separate caste, and alongside of the standard Marāthī of the Dēś. We may assume that what is true at the present time was also true in past days,1 and we may be certain that when the Prakrits were in flourishing existence numerous dialects existed in each locality alongside of the standard form of speech laid down by the grammarians for each local language. Let us take a few examples.

The confusion of the letters r and l is a well-known feature of Indo-Aryan languages from the earliest times. It is also known that the East preferred l, while the West was marked by a rhotacism of Eranian origin. Wackernagel (op. laud., p. xxi) quotes this fact as indicating that the l-speakers were the first Aryans to enter India, and that they had already settled on the Ganges in Vedic times. The point is therefore of importance from several aspects. Now, this general rule of the distribution of l and r presents some perplexing exceptions. As in other respects, Marāthī here generally agrees with the East, as against the West. Yet, while on the one hand, as M. Bloch shows (p. 144), it has numerous words

¹ So Wackernagel, Altindische Grammatik, I, xix: "Somit hat die überall vorkommende, aber in Indien am schärfsten ausgeprägte Scheidung der Sprache nach Volksklassen hier schon in vedischer Zeit geherrscht."

with l which in Sanskrit have r, on the other hand it has a certain number of words in which the reverse is the case, and r represents a Sanskrit l. The explanation is to be found in the fact, long ago pointed out by Hoernle, that while the Western r is cerebral and the Western l is dental, the Eastern r and l are both dental. Sindhī and the Dardic languages of the extreme North-West follow the East in this respect. In regions in which the two letters are both dental they are easily confused, and this has long been recognized by Indian grammarian grammarians. The Eastern Mārkandēva (Comm. to Intr. 5) says that according to some authorities, with whom he is in accord, संस्कृते अपि र-लयोरैकासारण-मिति न दोष: "even in Sanskrit it is not incorrect to look upon r and l as the same letter." Almost the same words have been used to me by a Kāshmīrī Pandit in explaining the meaning of an obsolete word chor, of which the modern form is chūl. He said it was explicable by "र-लयोरैकाता". At the present day, in the East, peasants are not able to distinguish between the two letters, and I have no doubt that with its Eastern leaning the same is the case in Marathi. In such circumstances it is quite unnecessary to presume the borrowings from any Western dialect in which r is preserved. The dental r is there, on the spot, in the mouths of the peasants, and if some of their words have come to the surface, and have ousted the l forms which would be usually employed by the educated classes, whose speech is based on the literary language, it is nothing extraordinary.

While discussing r, I may allude to the word ustra, which in Prakrit becomes either uttha- or utta- (Mārkandēya, iii, 14). Most modern languages preserve the aspiration, and have $\tilde{u}th$, but because Marāthī has $\tilde{u}t$ we are not entitled to assume that the disaspiration was a local peculiarity in Prakrit. According to Mārkandèya (xii, 7) the Eastern form would be

¹ Beames, i, 236, mentions the names of three Englishmen which the common folk of an Iudia District were never able to distinguish. The names were Kelly, Clay, and Currie.

ustha- or usta-; but I think that we may be sure that, under that blessed general rule of "bahulam", uttha- and utta-were also heard in some uneducated Eastern mouths. There is an old story of Kālidāsa's ignorant boyhood current in Bihār, which aptly illustrates this contention. His Paṇḍit wife tried to teach him to say "ustrah", but he could not. Sometimes he said uṣṭaḥ. At length, in desperation, she cried:—

उष्ट्रे जुम्पति रंवा षंवा तसी दत्ता विपुलनितम्बा। किंन करोति स एवं हि स्ष्टः किंन करोति स एवं हि तुष्टः॥

"In usira-sometimes he omitteth r and sometimes s, yet God hath given him a round-hipped wife. What doth He not do when He is wrathful, and what doth He not do when He is pleased!" Here we find the uneducated boy not only omitting the aspirate of the Māgadhī usitha- but sometimes speaking Apabhransa and retaining the original r. The verse is, of course, imaginary, but it gives a very clear picture of the varying pronunciation of Prakrit in the mouths of the uneducated.

Another example is the so-called irregular change of the sibilant to h in $da\acute{s}an$ - and in the seventies ($\bar{e}k\bar{a}hattar$, 71, and so on). Although found in Prakrit, this, as M. Bloch points out (pp. 161, 218, 221), is contrary to Marāṭhī custom, which normally preserves the sibilant. He is driven to suggest that the words are borrowed from some dialect of the West or of the Madhyadēśa. It is improbable that while a language should have its own series of numerals for all numbers except for 71 to 78, it should suddenly borrow these from other languages, and I think that we may consider the irregularity to be really another instance of class, as distinct from local, dialect. The literary language of the upper classes generally

¹ The word was popularly pronounced without the r even in Vedic times. See Wackernagel, p. i, 167.

preserved its sibilants, but in the case of these numbers the influence of the speech of the lower classes has made itself felt.

Were space available, I could quote other examples of what I am persuaded are borrowings from caste-dialects, such as the homonyms $v\bar{a}ph$, $b\bar{a}ph$, and bhaph (§ 84), or the nh in $dinhal\bar{a}$ and $j\bar{a}nhav\tilde{e}$ (§ 136). Cf. the eastern Ardhamāgadhī $pa\bar{n}canha\dot{m}$. The above examples must serve to illustrate my point.

But there is one dialect of Prakrit—Apabhramśa—to which I must devote more space. M. Bloch (pp. 30, 32) declines to trace any Marāthī forms to this, omitting it from consideration, and going back straight to Prakrit. It is true that we have full materials for only two forms of Apabhramsathose described by Hēmacandra and Mārkandēya respectively, the latter being called "Nagara", which means either "as used by educated persons" or, possibly, "as used by the Nagara Brāhmaṇas of Gujarāt". Pischel (§ 28) looks upon it as a mixture of widely differing dialects, with which I am inclined to agree, if they are class and not local dialects. As described by Hēmacandra, it seems to me to be a late form of a dialect akin to Saurasēnī which borrowed freely from the Dēśya grammar and vocabulary, and which, as standard Prakrit died out, gradually obtained prominence, and was finally adopted for literary purposes. It is as much a local dialect as Saurasēnī, and no more. The internal differences are due to the low strata of the population from which it is partly sprung, and it follows that, as Pischel points out, just as there was a Saurasēna Apabhramsa, there was a Māgadha Apabhrainśa, a Mahārāstra Apabhrainśa, and so on. We have no records of the last-named, but that it existed is certain, and we are entitled to assume that each Apabhramsa in, say, the period between the sixth and tenth centuries after Christ, bore, as regards its stage of development, the same relation to its corresponding Prakrit that the literary Apabhramsa, on which Hemacandra founded his grammar,

bore to Śaurasēnī.¹ That this assumption is justified I have shown at length elsewhere,² and I refrain from repeating myself. It follows that, making the necessary allowance for the local peculiarities of Śaurasēna Apabhramśa as described by Hēmacandra, it may be expected to give us valuable help in solving many riddles presented by Marāṭhī.

M. Bloch is resolute in his rejection of this form of speech. He even hints (p. 201) that it is possible that certain Apabhramsa forms, such as tēhim, are only transcriptions of other sounds which are unexplained, and thereby he destroys all value that tēhim might have possessed in explaining more modern forms; but here I cannot agree with him. Just as all the Prakrits are essentially one language with local or tribal differences, so I believe that all the Apabhramsas were one language, with similar differences, possibly more and more exaggerated as time went on. The Apabhramsa Caryāpadas of Bengal are perhaps of all Indian works the most difficult to understand, but they can often be explained by a reference to Hemacandra, and if this is the case with the Apabhramsa of distant Bengal, I do not see why we may not apply the same key to unlock some of the mysteries of Marāțhī, a language spoken in the country immediately adjoining Gujarāt.

Apabhramsa is, by origin, largely a language of the lower orders, and it is just these people that are often the most conservative in their speech-forms. The Prakrit grammarians crystallized tendencies into general rules. For instance, there was a tendency to elide intervocalic consonants. The grammarians admit that it was only a tendency, 3 but they practically (and especially

¹ It is to be noted that, while Hēmacandra, iv, 446, makes Apabhranisa to be based on Saurasēnī only, with (iv, 329) but a few traces of Mahārāṣṭrī, Mārkaṇḍēya (xvii, 1) states distinctly that Nāgara Apabhranisa is based partly on Saurasēnī and partly on Mahārāṣṭrī. This is an additional reason for using it to explain Marāṭhī. After this review went to press, I have received Professor Jacobi's edition of the Bhavisattakaha, and I am glad to sea that the explanation given above agrees in the main with the masterly exposition of Apabhramsa contained in that work.

² See Bulletin of the School of Oriental Studies, vol. i, pt. iii, p. 64.

³ Cf. the *prāyaḥ* of Vr. ii, 2; Hc. i, 177; Mk. ii, 2.

Hēmacandra 1) make the rule general. On the other hand, the conservative peasants kept it as a tendency, sometimes eliding medial consonants, and sometimes retaining them in an intermediate softened form. 2 When it became used for literature Apabhramsa thus presented a strangely mixed appearance, sometimes older and sometimes younger than the Prakrit of the grammarians. It was much nearer the actual speech of the people than the latter, and is hence supremely valuable for the study of the history of the language. I think that in discarding Apabhramsa from his consideration M. Bloch has deprived himself of an important tool. Let us take a few examples:—

Old Marāṭhī has a nominative in u (§ 186). So, as M. Bloch admits, has Apabhrainśa. But the nominative singular and plural of a-bases in the modern language has dropped all terminations, and appears now as the bare base $[d\bar{e}v(a)]$. This also happened in Apabhrainśa.³

In Marāthī, original k and kh in a certain number of words (§§ 97, 99) become g and gh respectively, as in $as\bar{o}g$ for $as\bar{o}ka$ -, $k\bar{a}g$ for $k\bar{a}kah$, and $r\bar{e}gh$ for $r\bar{e}kh\bar{a}$. As M. Bloch has discarded Apabhrainśa, he is obliged to class such words as semi-tatsamas, though why a semi-tatsama should change a k to g I do not know. But the same change, as already stated, was common in Apabhrainśa, and there the reason for it was obvious. While there was a tendency to elide medial consonants, the practical peasant preserved them when they were necessary for the sense. If the medial k of $k\bar{a}ka$ - had been elided the word would have been indistinguishable from the resultant forms of $k\bar{a}ca$ -, $k\bar{a}y\bar{a}$, and $k\bar{a}rya$ - (kajja-, $k\bar{a}ja$ -), all of which, if the rule for elision had been compulsory, would ultimately have become $k\bar{a}a$ -. Such a form of speech would have failed in the one object of language, to be intelligible to the listener.

¹ Cf. i, 209.

² Hc. iv, 396; Mk. xvii, 2. So Kramadiśvara and Rāma Tarkavā-gīśa.

⁸ Hc. iv, 344; Mk. xvii, 9.

⁴ See Bulletin of the School of Oriental Studies, vol. i, pt. iii, pp. 59 ff.

M. Bloch derives the Marāṭhī oblique form singular dēvā from the Prakrit dative devāa. Phonetically, this is quite possible, and if we did not know Apabhramsa, might receive some acceptance, although, in Prakrit, the occurrence of the dative was very rare. Vararuci, the oldest of the grammarians, denies its existence altogether. Later grammarians allowed it "sometimes", but only in the singular, and then only in a special sense.1 Surely it is a risky proceeding to put forward this rare case as the origin of one of the commonest forms of the modern language, especially when the meaning required is grammatically that of the genitive, and not of the dative.2 How much simpler it is to adopt the old explanation, and to derive deva from the Apabhrainsa genitive dēvaha. The phonetic equation is equally possible, and none of the above objections apply. M. Bloch (p. 182) objects that the Apabhramsa form "may very possibly be merely a transcription of a modern form, perhaps western", and that "in the ancient period the termination -aha is exclusively Magadhi, and is, besides, obscure". The first objection states merely a possibility, the acceptance of which opens the widest fields of speculation. M. Bloch has made a similar remark, already quoted about tēhim, and if the principle is assumed, it could be carried much further with somewhat surprising results. But what proof of it is there? Of what modern form is dēvaha a transcription? Is it of dēvā? Why vas the \bar{a} split up into two letters, and why was a h inserted? As for -aha being exclusively Māgadhī, that brings us back to my old objection. It is true that in Prakrit proper -aha is recorded only as occurring in Māgadhī, but if the grammarians are unanimous in recording it also for Apabhramsa, I really do not see why we are to reject their statements; and this fact shows that what was employed by the upper classes in the East was also used by the lower classes in the West. Why, therefore, we are to deny its existence in Mahārāstra Apabhramśa, I do not see.

¹ He. iii, 132; Mk. v, 131.

² dērā-madhyē = dēvasya madhyē, not dēvāya madhyē.

Again, there are the Marāthī case-terminations, \tilde{e} - and $-\tilde{a}$. The first indicates the instrumental singular and the latter the oblique plural. M. Bloch (p. 190) derives $-\tilde{e}$ from the Sanskrit $-\bar{e}na$, and here I am unable to follow him. I know of hardly any instance in Prakrit where medial n has been dropped or weakened to a mere nasalization. The one instance that is generally accepted is the form of the nominative plural neuter $(van\bar{a}im)$ for $van\bar{a}ni$, but the isolation of this fact renders it to me doubtful, and I hesitate to accept the equation as conclusive. According to Mārkaṇḍēya, v, 132, the nasalization is optional, and we may also have $van\bar{a}i$, and this, too, encourages my doubts. M. Bloch (§ 66) gives two other examples—this very $-\bar{e}na$, from which he derives $-\bar{e}$, and $-\bar{a}n\bar{a}m$, the termination of the Sanskrit genitive plural, which he considers to be the original of the Marāṭhī oblique plural termination $-\bar{a}$.

I think that it is much simpler to equate this Marāṭhī -ē with the Apabhramśa instrumental termination -ēm (puttēm). It is true that Pischel (§ 146) derives this -ēm from ēma, assuming that the final a has been dropped, and that n, having now become final, has been weakened to anusvāra; but he gives no proof of the fact, and I doubt his explanation. It is equally permissible to look upon it as a contraction of the locative termination - $ah\bar{i}$ extended to the instrumental, as has occurred in other modern Indian languages. Whether my contention is accepted or not, it is certain that the Marāṭhī $d\bar{e}v\bar{e}$ is a nearer relation of the Apabhramśa $d\bar{e}v\bar{e}m$ than of the Prakrit $d\bar{e}v\bar{e}na$, or the Sanskrit $d\bar{e}v\bar{e}na$, and that is my point at present.

The case is even clearer in regard to the termination $-\tilde{a}$, which M. Bloch would refer to the Sanskrit $-\bar{a}n\bar{a}m$, Prakrit $-\bar{a}nam$. I have shown in the preceding footnote that the n cannot here be elided, and it is plain that we must seek the origin elsewhere. We find it in the Apabhramśa -aham, which

¹ Even if we admit the derivation of $-\bar{e}$ from $-\bar{e}na$, through $-\bar{e}n$, this disappearance of n occurs only because it is final, after the apocope of the final a. The alleged change of $-\bar{a}n\bar{a}m$ to \bar{a} is in no way parallel to this, for here the n is not, and cannot become, final.

Pischel (§ 370) refers, not to $-\bar{a}n\bar{a}m$, but to the pronominal termination $-s\bar{a}m$.

In his "Additions et Corrections", M. Bloch is good enough to point out that I do not agree with him in regard to his contention that Marāthī possesses no stress-accent. To discuss the question here would occupy a whole article, and I must content myself with expressing my regret that he has been unable to convince me that he is right. I still believe that, though not so strong as in other Indo-Aryan languages, the stress-accent does exist in this form of speech, and has had an important influence on its levelopment. Perhaps our difference is really only one of terminology, for on p. 50 he mentions the existence of "le sommet rythmique" of each word, and it appears to me that this cannot be different from the stress-accent, the existence of which he denies.¹

But enough of discussing points of detail in which I think the author of this excellent work is mistaken. Let me now draw attention to another point, in which he is indubitably right, and in which many students, including myself, have been wrong. The Marāthī dative singular in -s (dēvās) has hitherto been considered to be derived from the Prakrit genitive (dēvassa). So long as we confined ourselves to the modern language, the explanation was simple and satisfying. It stared one in the face. But, alas for sweet simplicity! M. Bloch, following Mr. Rājwādē, shows that this is impossible. In old Marāṭhī this dative ended in -si (devāsi), which no ingenuity can derive from devassa. M. Bloch considers that the final -si is thus, apparently, an old postposition, added to the oblique form $d\bar{e}v\bar{a}$. The origin of this -si is very doubtful. With some hesitation he suggests (p. 198) that it comes from the Sanskrit aśrē, through the Prakrit assē, which is phonetically possible, though it requires proof. I may make another guess I would compare the undoubted fact that, in all other Indo-Aryan languages, the dative post-

¹ M. Bloch has further developed his remarks about the stress-accent in his article on pp. 359 ff. of the R. G. Bhandarkar Commemoration Volume.

position is an old locative or oblique form of the postposition of the genitive. It is possible that the same principle has produced dēvāsi, and that it is dēvassa after all, but put into a false locative, * $d\bar{e}vass\bar{e}$, just as in Hindī dative $d\bar{e}v-k\bar{o}$ is the oblique form, or old ablative, of $d\bar{e}v - k\bar{a}$, or the Bihārī dative $d\bar{e}v - k\bar{e}$ is the old locative of $d\bar{e}v - k(a)$. I can give no authority for my suggestion, but there are other instances of this kind of double declension, such as, for instance, the Hindī mēz-par-kā, of on the table, so that it is not altogether impossible. The matter is one which can only be settled after a careful analysis of the use of the ancient forms, and I do not propose it, save as indicating what may be a useful line of inquiry. I will only add that in the Marāthī of the Konkan (L.S.I. vii, 66) we find this dative form used as an oblique base (e.g. $d\bar{e}v\bar{a}s$ - $l\bar{a}$ instead of the standard $d\bar{c}v\bar{a}$ - $l\bar{a}$), and that, as I maintain, the standard oblique form is derived from the genitive (Apabhramsa dēvaha). If my suggestion holds, the following would therefore be the state of affairs: In Prakrit the genitive was also used as a dative. There were two forms of the genitive, dēvaha and dēvassa. In the stage of the modern vernaculars the former has had the fate of the genitive elsewhere, and has become the oblique form $d\bar{e}v\bar{a}$, while the latter-in the locative, $*d\bar{v}ass\bar{e}$ —has become specialized in the dative use, and has survived as dēvāsi, dēvās. In the Konkan, however, this specialization was not carried out, and dēvassa, like dēvaha, became the oblique form, while its locative, *dēvassē, as in the standard, became the dative. In this way, in the standard dialect, advantage has been taken of the twofold form of the genitive to specialize each for a different purpose.

There is much more that I should like to write about this excellent work were space available. It is written by one who is a master of his subject, who has had a sure view of the goal of his researches, and who has the gift of clear exposition. It is logically and clearly arranged, and its very completeness has compelled the author to include many subjects which still are matters of controversy. If the bulk of what I have written appears to combat some of M. Bloch's conclusions, this has been

done solely in the hope of being able to contribute something to a friendly discussion. As a whole, the book commands my hearty assent. It is what its name implies. It successfully describes, as has not been described before, "La Formation de la Langue Marathe."

GEORGE A. GRIERSON.

GLOSSARIO LUSO-ASIATICO. Por Monsenhor Sebastião Rodolfo Dalgado, Professor of Sanskrit, University of Lisbon. Coimbra, University Press. Two vols. 1919–21.

This admirable work, although it bears the modest title of a glossary, is in reality a treatise showing an enormous amount of research in a rather neglected subject. In England we are familiar with Sir II. Yule's inquiries into the inter-relations of European and Oriental languages in modern times, which resulted in his classical collaboration with Mr. A. H. Burnell in Hobson-Jobson, since carefully re-edited by Mr. W. Crooke. Mgr. Dalgado has taken up the subject from the Portuguese point of view, and has proved himself a worthy successor to Yule. His work is not only a Portuguese Hobson-Jobson. but something more, for Portuguese in this connexion occupies a different position from other European languages. It was first in the field in its borrowings and lendings, and was the medium through which most of the Oriental loans have reached them. Words of Malayalam, Tamil, Sinhalese, or Malay origin have found their way into Europe through a Portuguese channel, and they retain the form given them by the Portuguese tongue. And in the same way most of the European words now current in the East are derived from Portuguese, and many of these may be met with in daily use not only in the coasts where the Portuguese established themselves but in every part of India. And not only in these respects has Portuguese left its mark, but it is widely represented on the map of Asia, and in names like Bombay, Calicut, Hooghly, Chittagong, Siam, Malacca, or the Moluccas, we continue to echo the forms into which the vernacular names fell in the mouths of the first Portuguese adventurers.

Mgr. Dalgado has therefore an extensive field of observation open to him, and he is well equipped for the task. He has given long and careful study to the Aryan and Dravidian languages of India and to Sinhalese and Malay, and his studies of the dialects of Portuguese still spoken in the East are unique. These dialects are found outside the limits of the present Portuguese dominions, as, for instance, in Ceylon and Negapatam, and their study is a fruitful source of information.

The scope of the Glossario is wide enough to include not only words in popular use but others widely spread in works of learning and research, such as terms adopted not only in Portuguese but in all the literary languages of Europe, illustrating the religious and philosophical ideas of the East. These are mainly taken from Sanskrit or Arabic, and their elucidation is by no means unnecessary for students of Oriental creeds and ideas who are not philologists or acquainted with Eastern languages.

One of the most useful features of this work is the very complete chain of quotations, mainly, but not exclusively, taken from Portuguese writers from the earliest date of the Portuguese arrival in Eastern seas up to the present day, beginning with the Roteiro or Route-book of Vasco da Gama's memorable voyage and other narratives of early travel, followed by the correspondence of Alboquerque, the Book of Duarte Barbosa, and the important works of the great sixteenth century historians. These, as in Hobson-Jobson, are arranged chronologically, and form a great body of evidence which is indispensable to all students of the subject. A good example of Mgr. Dalgado's exhaustive treatment will be found under the word amouco, which should be read in connexion with the article a-muck in Hobson-Jobson. The earliest use of this word in Portuguese was found by Yule and Burnell to be that of Duarte Barbosa (circ. 1516), and on this they based their contention that the word was

already in use among the Malays in 1511, when the Portuguese first went to Malacca, but Dalgado points out that quite a different word was used in the original Portuguese (viz. ganico), and that amouco is only found in the Spanish version of much later date. The first appearance of amouco was, in fact, in the works of F. Mendez Pinto, and is referred to the year 1540, although his work was written after his return to Portugal in 1558. And the quotation from the historian Castanheda shows that in 1551 the word amouco was still regarded as being derived from India. Quotations like these are very valuable as affecting the question of the actual place of origin of the word, and the same value will be found in many other cases. Dalgado's opinion is that the ultimate origin of the word is the Skt. a nokshya, but that it had, like many other Indian terms, been adopted into the Javanese language, and gave rise to the term $\bar{a}moq$ and the verb mengamog in Malay, where in the end it displaced the older term ganas, which the Portuguese represented under the form qaniço.

Another characteristic article which may be alluded to is on the word jangada (Cf. H.J. s.v. jāngar). This word, derived from Malayalam chairgadam and ultimately from Skt. sanghatta, "union or junction," has been extensively adopted in Portuguese, and is used in no less than seven senses, all or which are fully illustrated in the quotations. The same remark may be made as to pagode or pagoda, which had already been considered by the author in his Contribuições para a Lexiologia Luso-Oriental (Lisbon, 1916). Its various meanings, (1) as an image of a deity, (2) as a temple, (3) as the name of a coin, and (4) as a festival, are all exhaustively dealt with, and it is pointed out that its first use in the sense of temple applied only to the places of worship of one particular caste in Malabar. In the last sense, that of a festival or popular assembly, the use of the word is confined to Portuguese, while in the senses (2) and (3) it has spread to other languages. In the first sense it has become obsolete.

Another interesting disquisition deals with the word macareo, a bore or tidal wave, which was first used by the Portuguese to describe the well-known phenomenon in the Gulf of Cambay by the historians of the sixteenth century, and was afterwards extended to describe it in other places. The origin of this word and its relation to the French macrée or mascaret have been the subject of some controversy, and have been already dealt with by our author in his word on Goncalves Viana and his contributions to Portuguese philology (Lisbon, 1917). It seems certainly to be of Indian origin, and is referred to the Skt. makara, a crocodile or marine monster. But the word is not used in the sense of a "bore" in any Indian language. Our author supposes that the Portuguese were told that the "bore" was caused by a makara which came to devour men, and that they took this for the vernacular name. This ingenious explanation may not improbably be correct. It seems clear that the French terms are derived from the Portuguese, and not the reverse. Mgr. Dalgado thinks that the form macrée was first adopted, and mascaret formed later by the insertion of an s, in the same way as pateca, a melon, was turned into pastèque. The French words are unknown before the sixteenth century, nor does any French origin seem to have been suggested.

It would be a difficult task to detect mistakes or defects in this work, but in an undertaking of such a vast scope it is needless to say there must be some. I can only refer to one under the word $sad\bar{\imath}$, a term derived from the Persian, and used at Hurmuz for a sum of 100 dinārs. The author compares it with the sedeo, a term for a money of account used in Gujarat. But I think there can be no doubt, as I have pointed out in a note on the passage where it occurs (Book of Duarte Barbosa, Hakluyt Soc., vol. i, p. 156), that sedeo is an error for fedea, which was in frequent use in the sixteenth century (see Hobson-Jobson s.v. Fedea), and that it has no connexion with the $sad\bar{\imath}$ of Hurmuz.

Mgr. Dalgado has long been known as a student of the

relations between Portuguese and the languages of the East, not only of India but of the innumerable tongues spoken from East Africa to Japan. In addition to the work on Gonçalves Viana already mentioned, the following have been published by the Academia des Sciencias: Influencia do Vocabulario Portugués em Linguas Asiáticas (Lisbon, 1913); Contribuições para a Lexicologia Luso-oriental (Lisbon, 1916). His Konkani-Portuguese and Portuguese—Konkani dictionaries were brought out, the first at Bombay (1893), the second at Lisbon (1905). He has also published a number of studies of the still-existing dialects of Portuguese in India and Ceylon.

In this great Glossario the result of all his work is summed up and brought together in a convenient form, and it may be hoped that students in England and India who are not acquainted with Portuguese will endeavour to obtain a sufficient knowledge of that language to enable them to avail themselves of the mass of valuable information contained in these volumes.

M. LONGWORTH DAMES.

THE BOOK OF GENESIS FOR BIBLE CLASSES AND PRIVATE STUDY. By SAMUEL A. B. MERCER, Ph.D., D.D., Professor of Hebrew and Old Testament in the Western Theological Seminary, Chicago, etc. pp. 193, 6½ by 4½ in. Morehouse Publishing Co., Milwaukee, Wis.; A. R. Mowbray & Co., London. 1919.

A really useful little manual of its kind, and one which bears the stamp of being the work of a scholar well versed in the needs of the learner. The contents comprise directions to students, Patriarchal history, and review-studies. An extract will make the author's method clear:—

74. MELCHIZEDEK, KING OF SALEM.

Read: Gen. 14, 18-20; Ryle, 14, 18-20; The Dictionary. "Jebus." "Salem."

On his return from victory, Abraham was met by the patesi, or priest-prince, of Salem. With what city is

Salem identified? What are the proofs of identification? Melchizedek brought forth bread and wine to nourish the returning soldiers. But he does more than that. Being priest of God Most High, whom Abraham recognizes as his own God, he gave Abraham his priestly blessing. Who was the God Most High? In response to the blessing, Abraham gave Melchizedek a tenth part of all the spoil.

The author has no objection, seemingly, to the acceptance of the teachings of the higher criticism—even the most advanced. In tracing the history of the Canon of the Old Testament, he quotes the statement which has already been made, that after the destruction of Jerusalem in 586 B.C. the Jews, on being exiled to Babylonia, came into contact with a literary people, and it was this which spurred them on to collect their own literary remains. Farther on, under the heading of "The Old Testament and Archæology", he speaks of the use and the abuse of the indications of the records, especially those of Babylonia and Assyria.

Very noteworthy are the sections headed "God", "The Image and Likeness of God", "The second account of Man's Creation", "Survival of the fittest in the natural world", etc. And here, it may be noted, that the Babylonians had—perhaps without knowing it—this same idea, the idea that the best of all created things were those which were selected to carry on the work of God (or the gods) in the world. But with them it was more especially the case in the divine world—the abode of the gods, whether good or evil, in which they believed.

It is a handy and informing little book, and cannot fail to be helpful to the student of that record of old time with which we are so familiar, and which, with many of us, forms a most attractive link with the remote past, when man was beginning to feel his way higher to things on the earth "when the world was young".

T. G. PINCHES.

RELIGIOUS AND MORAL IDEAS IN BABYLONIA AND ASSYRIA. By SAMUEL A. B. MERCER, Ph.D., D.D., etc. pp. 129, 6½ by 4½ in. Morehouse Publishing Co., Milwaukee, Wis.; A. R. Mowbray & Co., London. 1919.

This somewhat smaller book than the above is the fourth of the same series. The dedication will be recognized by all, especially members of the Royal Asiatic Society, as appropriate—it is "To the Memory of Sir Henry Rawlinson, Pioneer Assyriologist".

And this is the work of an Assyriologist, enthusiastic and full of the subject to which he has apparently devoted his lifethat of comparative religion. This is seemingly shown by his chapter-headings: "The Idea of God in Babylonia and Assyria," "The Idea of Man," "The Idea of Mediation," "The Idea of the Future," "The Idea of Morality." And what was these ancient people's idea of God? They "ask of their gods that they should be as familiar as possible, that they have to do with daily life, that they seem to issue from the heart of common things, and clothe those things with light which makes them radiant". And this is true of the Babylonians and the Assyrians—just as it would be true of us, did we venture to hope for such intimacy on the part of the Divinity. "The essential connection between the life of the gods and the life of man is the great truth of the world, for 'the spirit of man is the candle of the Lord'." "The gods are the fire of the world, its vital principle, a warm, pervading presence everywhere. And of this fire the spirit of man is the candle."

In "The Idea of Mediation" the author says that "the earliest idea of sacrifice was that of communion. Men and their god joined together in a sacred meal and partook of a sacred animal, in whose veins had run the blood common in gods and man, that is, the life of gods and man". This is a view which is supported by certain acts of sacrifice recorded in the inscriptions, and is more especially illustrated in the bas-relief in which Aššur-banî-âpli, King of Assyria, is represented pouring out, as an offering to the gods, after his success-

ful return from the lion-hunt, some of the wine which was brought to him, and which he was about to drink to refresh himself after the fatigues of the chase. In this and similar acts we may recognize the truth of Dr. Mercer's contention, but there is no doubt that this was not always the end in view—the sharing of a meal with the gods. The ceremony of sharing Dr. Mercer regards as having developed into a real sacrifice later—and this is likely, though arguments for and against might always be urged.

The book begins with a chronological historical outline, and closes with a bibliography and a short index, which last might have been extended with advantage.

T. G. PINCHES.

GROWTH OF RELIGIOUS AND MORAL IDEAS IN EGYPT. By SAMUEL A. B. MERCER, Ph.D., D.D., etc. pp. 109, $6\frac{1}{2}$ by $4\frac{1}{2}$ in. 1919.

This, the second book of the series, is upon the same lines as the preceding, and the same chapter-headings, substituting Egypt for Babylonia, serve to distinguish the subjects treated of.

More attractive, probably, than the religion of Babylonia, is that of Egypt, notwithstanding the more familiar nature of the gods and the heroes of the farther eastern land. Indeed, the bright colours and the grotesque strangeness of many of the gods represented in such great profusion on the walls of their temples and elsewhere arouse the curiosity of the beholder, and lead him to inquire what could have been the turn of mind of the nation which conceived divine powers—the creators of the world and of men—in forms often lower than their own—for it is impossible to imagine that they all thought of the animal forms in which their deities were often represented as having the intelligence which even the commonest of human beings possessed.

"Mankind is incurably religious, and all religion is a sweep of the soul towards God. The soul is always athirst for God." With these words Dr. Mercer begins his third chapter, "The Idea of God in Egypt." "His (the Egyptian's) world was peopled with gods, because it was full of mystery and wonder." If he was attracted by some noteworthy natural object, he would call a god by its name. Thus the sky (nut) was the goddess Nut; the earth (geb) became the god Geb; $R\bar{a}$ (Ria, $R\ell$) was the sun; and Hapi the Nile. But sometimes the god was identified indirectly, and then an animal became associated with the deity. Thus at the Fayume a god was identified with the crocodile, and called Sebek; at the cataract with the ram, and he then received the name of Khnum; in the Delta it was the hippopotamus, and a god there received the name of Rert.

Apparently there was a fundamental difference between the religion of Babylonia and that of Egypt in the matter of Mediation. In the former country, though the king was divine, and the representative of the gods, he was in no sense a mediator—that part was played by the other divinities, and especially by Merodach. In Egypt, on the other hand, the Pharaoh, owing to his divine nature, held the position of the gods' representative on earth, and a mediator was not needed (see Mercer's, pp. 59–60). Farther on in this chapter the popular "cult" as distinguished from the official religion is dealt with. The chapter upon Egyptian morality is especially noteworthy.

It is to be hoped that the author will be able to extend the series. The volumes will form a useful complement to Archibald Constable's excellent series (a low-priced series, too, which is a consideration in these days of enhanced cost and dearth); and perhaps the Morehouse Publishing Co. could see its way to issuing Dr. Mercer's tittle books in a cheaper edition—the American rate of exchange hits the European reading public rather hard.

T. G. PINCHES.

AN EGYPTIAN HIEROGLYPHIC DICTIONARY, with an Index of English words, King-List and Geographical-List, with Indexes, List of Hieroglyphic Characters, Coptic and Semitic Alphabets, etc. By Sir E. A. Wallis Budge, Knt., M.A., D.Litt., etc., Keeper of the Egyptian and Assyrian Antiquities, British Museum. John Murray, 1920. £15 15s.

Dr. Budge has been gathering material for this dictionary for the last twenty-seven years, and the 25,000 word-forms dealt with are a digest of over 300,000 separate reference-slips which he had collected during that period. The process of elimination and contraction evidently had to be drastic, in order to reduce the work to a size which would not too greatly dismay the publisher; and the absence of much matter that ought not to be absent is, no doubt, mainly to be attributed to the author's anxiety to get the book published at once. It appears that some generous and public-spirited friend had offered to bear the cost of publication, and it is to be presumed that John Murray strictly limited the author to the thousand pages, which the actual dictionary occupies, and to the two hundred pages of other matter.

The money being thus guaranteed, however, the printer and binder seem to have been given a rather free hand, and the result is that the volume is much more handsome and expensive, and one might almost say pompous, than the bald and economical treatment of the material justifies. Dr. Budge is probably partly to blame for this; for he seems to take a particular pleasure in the rich appearance of his books, and one may hazard a guess that he experiences a very pleasant thrill of enjoyment when a work from his prolific pen is deposited upon his table with a good, heavy thud, and when he can turn over the stout pages of beautiful type with the feeling that the best traditions of English printing have been maintained. Such a proclivity is very human.

The ordinary Egyptologist, on the other hand, heartlessly directs his attention only to the subject-matter; and he is

somewhat annoyed to find that while the whittling down of the material ought to have brought the dictionary well within his own or his local library's purchasing-power, the price of the volume has been raised to £15 15s. by reason of the rich leather binding, the fine quality of the paper, the ugly and unnecessarily coloured dedication-sheet, the large and heavy type of the English index, which occupies some two hundred pages, when it could easily have been printed in ten, and so forth. One gets the impression that the work is monumental, and consequently it is a shock to find that the matter does not pretend to be treated exhaustively, and is decidedly faulty.

In the Introduction Dr. Budge modestly writes: "In my work there will be found inconsistencies, misunderstandings, misprints, and probably downright misstatements; but I hope and believe that the dictionary will be useful to the beginner, and will save him time and trouble. Many, many years must pass before the perfect dictionary can, or will, be written, and meanwhile the present work may serve as a stop-gap." but the volume belies these humble words, for neither its form nor its price is in any way modest.

The author's transliteration of the hieroglyphic words into our lettering will somewhat disturb the average scholar. Our alphabet does not supply the exact equivalents of the Egyptian sounds, while the subject of the vowels is full of pitfalls, and most Egyptologists, therefore, have been obliged to resort to a number of modified letters and signs, such, for example, as \(\frac{1}{2}\), \(\lambda\), or \(\dalde{d}\). Dr. Budge, however, sticks to the old-fashioned \(a, q\), and \(tch\) for these, and though he thus makes the words pronounceable he gives them a form entirely unacceptable to his fellow-workers. For instance, where the usual scholar writes \(\dalde{d}\frac{1}{2}\frac{1}{

taught philologist the ponderosity of the British Museum. This is a pity, because Dr. Budge is no more ponderous and old-fashioned than he is pedantic and precise. He is rather a dashing sort of modernist, an unconventional scholar of amazing scope, a man of vast knowledge and surprising industry, original, casual, bold, and perhaps a little reckless. But nobody would think so by his heavy transliterations.

In the Introduction it is pointed out that a great many references to the texts in which the various senses or forms of a word occur have had to be omitted, owing to lack of space, but this is not quite a correct statement of the case. He should have said that he cut out these references, thinking it necessary to do so for the publisher's sake, but found out too late that they could have remained in without in any way increasing the size of the volume. Take, for example, his treatment of the word wenuti, a kind of priest, or unut, as he transcribes it. He gives eleven variants of the word, and not a single reference, nor is there any note of the period to which any one of these forms belongs. In the Theban tomb-inscriptions there are at least five other variants of this word, all closely dated, and in two or three cases the determinating sign (an eye) is found, which is of importance in arriving at the exact meaning of the word; but Dr. Budge does not give this at all.

Then, again, the translations are often careless, and there is no attempt to show the nice refinements of meaning which present-day knowledge is gradually revealing. For example, the word, wšr (his usher) generally means "to be empty", but Dr. Budge does not mention the case, in the Meir inscriptions, where it seems to mean "a holiday", nor the instance, in the Kahun Papyri, where it denotes "absence from duty". Again, his rendering of the word dryt (his tchert) as "hawk, falcon, vulture, kite, glede", is somewhat startling; for "falcon" there is evidence, "kite" is a possibility, but why "vulture"?

There must be countless words of which no mention is made at all, for a very superficial study of the dictionary reveals quite a number that are missing. There is no mention of the rare verb hr, "to milk," which occurs in the tomb of Akhthoy at Thebes and elsewhere: none of hdt, "a mine-gallery," which often occurs in the Sinai inscriptions; none of sin, "to wait"; none of dbw, "a leaf"; none of khd, "current"; none of dbw, an official position of some kind; none of didy, a kind of red berry. These are just a few instances which happen to have been noticed by the present writer, because they are words which have puzzled him.

Moreover, although Dr. Budge gives a long list of books which he has consulted, he sometimes does not even give a reference to the exhaustive or lengthy discussions in regard to certain words or phrases which occur in these works. For instance, Dr. Gardiner's Tomb of Amenemhet is one of the books consulted, but although that Egyptologist there devotes fifteen large pages of small print to a thorough study of the formula hotp de nisut, Dr. Budge discusses the matter in five or six lines, and gives no reference to Dr. Gardiner's dissertation, which is the only full statement of the case. Again, in the same work the words hit-nb are discussed, but Dr. Budge is satisfied with the literal meaning, and gives no reference to Dr. Gardiner. Similarly, Dr. Blackman's Rock Tombs of Meir contains a lengthy note on the verb ksm, "to turn aside," but though Dr. Budge gives this as one of the books consulted he makes no mention of the variants of the word and references there collected.

Such are the main points at which the dictionary is open to attack. But much is to be forgiven the learned author, because, after all is said and done, he has produced the only modern dictionary of the Ancient Egyptian language which is really available. The great lexicon which for many years now has been in process of creation in Berlin is nowhere near completion; and up till now the student has been obliged to use Brugsch's *Hieroglyphisch-Demotisches Wörterbuch*, which was published in 1868, and has had to supplement it by his own notes. Thus every Egyptologist, say what he may,

will find this work immensely useful, and it will be of far greater service to Egyptology than Dr. Budge so modestly thinks.

At the end of the book there is a useful list of kings, in which the names of the Pharaohs are given more or less in full; and there is also a good vocabulary of geographical names. From each of these lists, by the way, a single instance will show how very ponderous is the transliteration employed: in the king-list the author transcribes the throne-name of Amenophis III as Neb Maāt Rā, although the Tel el Amarna tablets show it to have been pronounced Nimmuriya; and in the geographical list the town of which the modern natives have still retained the old name, Damanhûr, is given by Dr. Budge's method as Temai en Heru. In this latter instance the ordinary Egyptologist would transliterate the hieroglyphs as Dm'ynhr, which, even as the mere skeleton of the word, has a much closer likeness to Damanhûr than the other.

There are also some useful indexes in the dictionary, and a notable feature of the work is the Introduction, in which Dr. Budge gives an illuminating and entertaining account of the labours of earlier Egyptologists, tracing the growth of the study from its crude beginnings, a century ago, to the present time, when the vast body of documentary and monumental literature found in Egypt has been forced to deliver up its secrets with very few reservations.

To sum up, the work is a monument of patience and industry; a most valuable possession for any Egyptologist, beginner or advanced student; it is faulty, it is often aggravating, it is unnecessarily expensive, considering that the cost of production has been met by some nameless philanthropist (to whom much thanks are due), but it puts before us 25,000 hieroglyphic word-forms which have never until now been accessible to the ordinary student in this way. And therefore Dr. Budge can smile at our captious criticisms, because he must know in his heart that he has done a very fine thing, a thing which no one other man has dared to attempt.

KHAROŞŢHĪ INSCRIPTIONS DISCOVERED BY SIR AUREL STEIN IN CHINESE TURKESTAN. Part I: Text of Inscriptions discovered at the Niva Site 1901, transcribed and edited by A. M. Boyer, E. J. Rapson, and E. Senart. pp. [viii], 153 [1], with six plates. Published under the authority of His Majesty's Secretary of State for India in Council. Oxford: at the Clarendon Press, 1920.

The publication of this long-expected work provides a treat for all scholars interested in Indian dialectology or Central Asian studies. The fascinating linguistic and historical problems are here associated with abundant and intimate information concerning the administration and the life of the people of the Khotan region during the early centuries of our era. The story of the discovery of the documents is well known from Sir A. Stein's two important publications Sand-Buried Ruins of Khotan, London, 1903, and Ancient Khotan (Oxford, 2 vols., 1905), where the reasons for dating the period of Indian culture in Southern Turkestan are decisively set forth.

The term "inscriptions" does not here bear its most ordinary meaning of texts originally set up for public perusal or attached to dedicated objects or engraved for record of donations and the like. The wooden tablets, pieces of leather, etc., which constitute the material, exhibit for the most part original documents relating to matters of public, largely legal, and private business. Many of them are letters addressed by the king to local officials, giving particulars of disputes or complaints and prescribing the action to be taken. There are numerous lists of personal names with items indicated against each. The private or semi-private communications are in a strain of elaborate courtesy. How this material came to exist in one place has been explained by Sir A. Stein (Ancient Khotan, pp. 318 seq.), who has also furnished (pp. 363 seq.) a rather full and very useful and interesting statement of what it conveys.

A systematic review of this first part of a large undertaking would be premature. What the editors here present is the

outcome of a work of decipherment. It is needless to dwell upon the difficulty of the task. A mere glance at the plates will reveal to those who have not already drawn the lesson from the specimens reproduced in Ancient Khotan what perseverance and finesse was required for dealing with these cursive developments of the Kharosthī script, even where time has spared the freshness of the writing. Very many new marks and combinations of signs have had to be evaluated, and the delicacy of the task is illustrated by cases where the three editors have not been able to give a consentaneous reading. The great irregularity of the spelling must be reckoned as one of the chief difficulties which have had to be overcome.

There can be no doubt that the operation of decipherment has been crowned with success. Any future discussion must turn upon the values to be assigned to a very few signs or combinations, or upon their phonetic history. We may not know how the official title cojhbo or the personal name Lpipe were pronounced, or in what language they originated; but, qua readings, they and their numerous analogues may be regarded as in general definitive.

The resultant texts are, as a whole, much more legible than might be expected in the case of a Prakrit mixed with foreign terms and employed as a language not of literature, but of affairs. Helped by the similarities between many of the documents, we are often in a position to make out the sense with moderate completeness.

There is some inconvenience in the separate issue of the texts without introduction, translations, or notes. No doubt the work of interpretation is in principle already done; and in general scholars would waste their time by proffering at this stage suggestions and comments which probably stand already anticipated or refuted in the editors' MSS. It is to be hoped that a rapid progress in the publication will put them in a position to lend a hand. At present we depend upon the information contained in Professor Rapson's com-

munication to the Orientalist Congress at Algiers in 1905, and some short articles by M. Senart and M. Boyer. On matters of grammar and dialect we look forward to very considerable enlightenment.

I may refer to just one or two details which may be regarded as publici juris. The reader will be surprised to find our old friend, the title yabau, the yaŭa, yavuga, Zaov of the Kashana coins, frequently occurring as, apparently, a proper name, in lists with other proper names; and perhaps he will also be surprised to find that it is never, it seems, spelt jabqu. It is a good many years since it was pointed out that the Greek spelling with a ζ , together with other circumstances, pointed to a value of y similar to that of the French j (JRAS. 1906, p. 205). The examples are older than these documents. the documents the uncompounded y seems to be generally preserved and distinguished from the j; so that in words like raya (for $r\bar{a}ja$) we must recognize a real weakening of the j rather than a strengthening of the y. Accordingly, it would appear that the dialect of the documents was exempt from the change of y to \dot{z} or z, and, further, that in the word $yab\dot{q}u$, for which I should be more prepared to find a "Scythic" than a Turk or Chinese etymon, the original initial sound was a y. As a proper name, the word may have enjoyed a popularity with parents (cf. "Prince", "Rex", etc.), or may point to family connexion with a real yabqu.

A feature which we miss in the documents is the $ys \ (=z)$ of the Saka inscriptions and the Khotanī language ($Ys\bar{a}motika$, ysnaura, etc.), which was first clearly treated by Professor Lüders in his article on the Sakas. Herewith we may associate the paucity, to say the least, of clearly Iranian words. It looks as if the language of the people under the Prakrit-using government was something other than Iranian or than the later Khotanī; and the titles, such as cojhbo, sothamga, do not seem at first sight such as to modify this impression.

¹ The obvious suggestion of a connexion with Tibetan presents chronological difficulties, as Sir A. Stein makes clear. But certain linguistic points suggest that the qualification "Western" added to Tibetan may offer a possibility.

The possibility that some of the s's, e.g. in asgara, were pronounced as z's does not here come into question.

We may take note of the frequent use of the verb paribuj, in the sense of "hesitate" or "delay". It is obviously the equivalent of the palibudh of the Aśoka edicts and the Pali texts. The manner of dating is of some interest in other connexions. In the full form we commence with the (clearly regnal) year; then comes the name of the king, with titles, in the genitive case, and then the month and day. This is the form employed in the Taxila inscription of the Satrap Patika, and we may say that it is a natural one. As an example, we may quote document 345:—

Saṃvatsare 441 mahanuava maharaya jiṭugha vaṣmana devaputraṣa maṣe 3 divaṣe 41.

"In the year 9 (in the reign) of the great-souled great-king Jitugha Vasmana, the Devaputra, in month 3, on day 5."

The kings most often mentioned, namely Vasmana (years 3, 7, 8, 9, 10), Mayiri or Mairi or Mahiriya (years 4, 7, 11, 12, 13, 15, 17, 21, 22, 26, 27, 28), Anguva or Amgonka or Amkvaga (identical?: years 5, 28, 30), Tajaka (year 3), usually have prefixed to their names some form of the word Jitugha (Citughi, etc.), which, being attended with an already sufficient number of honorifics and titles (devaputra, etc.), will probably be a dynastic or family name. We shall then note that the nomenclature follows the same system as in the case of the Vijaya or Wizya kings of Khotan, and shall await further enlightenment. The feminine names (in -e, -oae, etc.) will be helpful in regard to the language.

The word *khakhorni*, if I rightly understand it to be an equivalent of a śvaśurāṇī, has also an interesting form.

The name Kusana, common in these records, is one to which in a mere review prudence bids us give a wide berth. Nevertheless, we may refer to the fact that it sometimes appears (e.g. in No. 117) in the form kursana. The Greek coins also, we as know, sometimes have a P, which is read with the value of sh and sometimes PC (Xopav, $Kop\sigma vo$, etc.).

The Indian alone is content with the s (sh); and this invites reflection. The Indian s, as a cerebral sound, will have had sufficient of an r-nature to meet the occasion without adventitious aid. We would therefore suggest that the native sound represented by the combinations rs and PC was in reality a strongly cerebralized sh (sometimes z), such as exists, I understand, in Chinese.

The little verse in No. 103, with its single and double circles (marking ends of half-verse and whole verse?), will exercise the ingenuity of those who delight in such things.

Heartily congratulating the joint authors upon their very important achievement, we eagerly await the continuance of their publication.

F. W. THOMAS.

Lokeśvara-śatakam, ou Cent Strophes en l'honneur du Seigneur du Monde, par Vajradatta. Édité et traduit par Suzanne Karpelès. Extrait du *Journal* Asiatique (Novembre-Décembre, 1919). Paris, 1919.

In editing the Sanskrit and Tibetan texts of this celebrated encomium of the Bodhisattva Lokeśvara or Avalokiteśvara. perhaps still more in translating it, Mdlle. Karpelès has given undeniable proof of courage. The task would have tried the mettle of the most experienced scholars. Composed in the elaborate Gauda style of kāvya, and preserved in Nepalese MSS. exhibiting all their eccentricities of reading and spelling, its textual decipherment demands both a rare acumen and a thorough familiarity with Indian poetic usage. Even with a perfect text, a third and a fourth attentive perusal may be required for the exact determination of the sense. Tibetan, which, as usual, supplies a valuable control of the readings, presents its own textual and metrical difficulties; as regards the construction and meaning, its syntactical weakness renders it, in works of this character, far more problematic than the original. It is on the principle of give and take that the two sources can be brought into one account.

Mdlle. Karpelès is to be congratulated upon the success which has rewarded her endeavours. It is seldom that a false reading has been chosen, and the translation, while free and readable, does full justice to the conceptions of the writer and points his allusions in detail. It need not be said that a Sanskrit poet of the ninth century—for this is Vajradatta's epoch—is exacting in his requirements.

Each of the verses, in Sragdharā metre, is in the form of an āśīrvāda or blessing. The description of the Bodhisattva commences, according to the rule regarding divine beings, with his feet, or, rather, in this case, with the light of his toe-nails. The toe-nails themselves emerge for a moment in verses 16 and 18, and in verse 26 the feet come into play, to accompany us as far as verse 45. Then, more dispersedly, we treat of the lotus in Lokeśvara's hand, his Amitābhabearing crest, his compassion, his name, his qualities, his worship, love of him, meditation upon him, his praise, his kindness, his grace, the remembrance of him, his action, his universality, his titles, his constancy, his protection, teaching, and so on, as far as verse 83. Then we come to his hand with its lotus, his arm, his dress, his face, his tresses. It is not easy through this thorny track to maintain the freshness of our receptivity; but we acknowledge the thrill which the author has reserved for verse 97, where we meet the Great Being's eye. Or rather, we meet it not, since with a momentary quiver of apprehensive compassion it is turned upon his too terrific ally, Hayagrīva! From the latter we pass to Bhṛkutī-Tārā, saving goddess, and we end with an obscurely worded expression (v. 100) of the truth that only the words of Sugata are adequate to the description of the whole assemblage of great qualities. Putting the poem side by side with the famous Ajanta picture of Avalokitesvara, if it is indeed he, we can to some extent realize what it may have meant to the poet and his hearers.

We may spare ourselves the ungrateful task of detailing the small and rare defects in the texts and the translations. In a few cases Mdlle. Karpelès might look again at the metre (e.g. 13a, 19c, 20a) or the Tibetan spelling (e.g. 20c, 21). In 5 nīhāra should mean "frost", in 22 svarbhuvām "gods", and in 59 Guru and Ākhaṇdala would be synonyms of Bṛhaspati and Indra. Verse 24 seems to give us an example of the preposition pāre compounded; and as regards verse 100 we might take counsel with the authorities on Indian music.

F. W. THOMAS.

LIFE AND ADVENTURES OF EMIN JOSEPH EMIN, 1726-1809, written by himself. Second edition. Edited by his great-great-granddaughter. AMY APCAR. 4to; pp. xxxii, 532. Calcutta, 1918.

Miss Apcar, the well-known editor of Armenian Melodies. has performed a true work of piety, in the old Roman sense, in producing this magnificent edition of the autobiography of her remarkable ancestor, which first appeared in 1792. The original narrative was written by Joseph Emin in English, and corrected by Sir William Jones, from whom is printed a characteristic letter (pp. xix-xx) dated "Gardens, August 10, 1788". In Lord Teignmouth's Memoirs of Sir William Jones there is a brief abstract of the really wonderful career of this notable Armenian. "In Emin we see the same man who was [in England, Europe, and Armenia] a sailor, a porter, a menial servant, and subsisting by charity—the companion of nobles and patronized by princes and monarchs, ever preserving in his deepest distresses a sense of honour, a spirit of integrity, a reliance upon Providence, and a firm adherence to the principles of Christianity in which he had been educated." Emin's own view of the story he had to tell is contained in a letter he wrote in 1788: "In twenty years more when I and all my good friends who know my accounts to be true, shall be dead and gone, I shall be looked upon as a mere romancer." And so the story remained until Miss Apear came across the Letters of Elizabeth Montagu,

and was thus put in possession of "the first link in the chain of evidence which thenceforward began to unfold itself"—another instance of a traveller's tale, on sufficient evidence being unearthed, being found to be true.

The story is written in a mixture of the long-winded fashion of the day and Oriental imagery and idealism, but to my mind it is most fascinating. In the second volume of Hickey's Diary we find a reflex of Anglo-Indian and English life, manners, and ideals at much the same period; but here we have the life both of the lower and upper classes of English men and women in the latter half of the eighteenth century shown us at first hand, even though the eyes that saw it were those of an Oriental. I commend the narrative to anyone who desires to realize how our forefathers lived and thought both in England and India at that period.

Emin was born at Hamadan in Persia in 1726, in the days of Nadir Shah, and his adventurous life began very early in his native land. In 1744 he joined his father in Calcutta, whither he had previously gone, and in 1751 he ran away to England as a deckhand on the Walpole, the "last boat of the season", and arrived at Woolwich in September. His great object was military knowledge to be used "to rescue his countrymen from the yoke of Turks and Persians". How he gained his object and used his knowledge is told in this book, which reads in many places like an historical novel. His early life in England was a struggle for existence, at one time on three-halfpence a day, "without money, without Friend, or any Body but Lord in heaven," and then as a porter on £8 a year. However, an accidental introduction, obtained in a fashion that is real romance, to the Earl of Northumberland, in 1755, changed everything for him, and thenceforward there is hardly anyone of note, up to the highest in the land, whom he did not know. He became a diligent military student, was introduced to the Duke of Cumberland, and joined in the expedition against St. Malo in 1758.

Every kind of name in England and Europe is crowded

into these pages as personally known to him: Sir John Evelyn, Edmund Burke, Mrs. Montagu, Lord Albemarle, Lady Sophia Egerton, Lord Cathcart, William Pitt, Lord Lyttelton, Sir Joseph Yorke, Frederick of Prussia, Dr. Davis, Dr. Monsey, Dr. Patrick Russell, Charles Evelyn, Lady Yarmouth, Lord Huntingdon, Count Vorontsov. Lord Buckingham, the Prince of Wales (George IV), and so on, showing the letter: to and from Emin to be valuable historically.

As early as 1758 he commenced, by a letter sent through Basra, his life's work—the saving of his country and the support of the claim of the Bagratid Heraclius, Prince of Georgia, a claimant unfortunately of not much worth. In the course of this quest he visited The Hague, Leghorn, Alexandretta, and Aleppo, with wonderful adventure; and failure to reach his object (1758-61). He started again via St. Petersburg, and found his way to Heraclius via Astrakhan, and then commenced life as a military leader in the Near East with a story once more like a novel, ending with the ingratitude of the graceless Heraclius.

It was now 1768, and Emin had found his way to Baghdad and Basra and finally reached Calcutta once more in 1770, a recognized military commander and friend of the great Indian men of the day. Cartier made him "risaldar of the first brigade of Turkswars [? Turk suwārs]". Here he met with doubts as to his story, which were set at rest by a letter from the now Duke of Northumberland. He served with the Corps at Dinapore and Shahabad for a while, but resigned because, as a foreigner, he could not serve in the British Army, and obtained Warren Hastings' leave to try once more in Armenia (1775). But after adventures enough to satisfy anyone he never got beyond Julfa, and by 1785 was back in Calcutta, where he was posted as an ensign to a company of European Invalids by General Sloper, and having thus attained one great ambition, viz. to be a British officer, he wrote his narrative. He lived on till 1809. An astonishing

life, well worth recording and well worth reading, and of value historically.

R. C. T.

THE NAGARI-PRACARIŅĪ PATRIKA (नागरीप्रचारिणी पत्रिका अर्थात् प्राचीन शोधसंबंधी नैमासिक पत्रिका). Benares, 1920.

The attention of members of the Royal Asiatic Society may be drawn to the new issue of the Nāgarī-pracāriņī Patrikā, the official journal of the Benares Nāgarī-pracāriņī Sabhā. The first number of the Patrika appeared in the year 1897, and, under one or two changes of form, has steadily adhered to its aim of throwing light on the ancient and mediaeval literature of Northern India. Now and then its pages have contained articles of rare excellence on the greater Hindī writers, but its contents were not unfrequently somewhat mixed, so that occasionally we found popular articles on sanitation or medicine (excellent in their way) cheek by jowl with others of a learned character. The Sabhā has now decided to issue a new series of the Patrika of a more purely scientific nature, and the first two numbers mark a considerable advance in its activities. They inaugurate what we may hope will long continue to be a journal worthy of an Indian learned society.

The first number of this new series (Vaiśākha, Sam. 1977 = April-May, A.D. 1920) contains amongst other interesting articles an important account of the foundation of the Dūngarpur State in Rājputānā, from the pen of that well-known scholar Paṇḍit Gaurīśankar Hīrācand Ōjhā, and a discussion by Paṇḍit Candradhara Śarmā Gulērī on the much disputed question of the so-called Patna statues, which the author, like most Indian scholars, believes to be representations of two kings of the Śiśunāka family. It is illustrated by excellent photographs of the statues and of the inscriptions on them. The same author also gives interesting shorter articles on dēvakulas, in connexion with Bāṇa's reference to Bhāsa in the Harṣa-carita and the latter poet's Pratimā-nāṭaka, and on the inscription on the Garuḍadhvaja at

Besnagar, the language of which was, he maintains, a mongrel Prakrit written by a Persian, and comparable to what we call "Bābū-English". Thac veteran historian of Rājputānā, Munshī Dēvīprasāda, contributes a most important list of janmapatrikās of 214 celebrated Indians, mostly Rājpūts. all with dates, the earliest having been written in the Sambat year 1472 (A.D. 1415). Finally, Bābū Śyāma-sundara Dāsa, who has been intimately connected with the Sabhā since its foundation, and was for many years its honorary secretary, contributes a description of an old, and hitherto unknown, recension of the Vinaya-patrikā of Tulasī-dāsa, which differs materially from that now current. This is more than a question of mere textual criticism, for no work reveals more intimately the attitude of the great prophet of Northern India to the Deity than this wonderful collection of heartborn prayers.

The second number (Śrāvaṇa, 1977 = July-August, 1920) contains an equally interesting and valuable series of articles, and the Sabhā is to be congratulated on the inception of a really serious journal, edited on lines that will commend themselves to Western science. It is all written in Hindī. The Sabhā is an Indian society, and addresses its readers in an Indian language. The articles are not mere réchauffés of the opinions or discoveries of European savants, but are based on independent research, and therefore, whether we agree with the results arrived at or not, are to be received with the warmest welcome in the West.

G. A. G.

TWO KURDISH GRAMMARS

I.—ELEMENTARY KURMANJI GRAMMAR. By Major E. B. Soane, C.B.E., Political Department. pp. 197. Baghdad: Government Press, 1919.

The author of To Kurdistan and Mesopotamia in Disguise and of Grammar of the Kurmānji, or Kurdish Language,

has by this new publication considerably increased our knowledge of one of the most unknown Aryan languages of the world. The dialect treated is that spoken in the Southern districts of Kurdistan, chiefly in Sulaimanīyah Mutaşarriflik. Chanykow in his Vermittelung in Sau'd Bulak (1856), Chodzko in his "Etudes philologiques" (Journ. Asiat., sér. v, t. ix, 1857), De Morgan in his "Mission scientifique en Perse" (t. v, 1904), and others, had already drawn our attention to the peculiarities of this Kurdish dialect, but here we have for the first time a comprehensive and clear survey of all its ramifications. The aim of the work is, according to the author, more modest, "This sketch is intended primarily for the use of officers and others whose duties lead them to the Southern districts of Kurdistan," but I am sure the work will satisfy all the requirements of a modern philologist anxious to acquire a good working knowledge of Kurdish.

The book is divided into two distinct parts: pp. 1–86 contain an outline of grammar, and pp. 87–197 are filled with a good and useful vocabulary. The order of the grammar is modern in its conception, and contains, besides the phonetical and morphological rules of the language, exercises from Kurdish into English and vice versa, preceded by a "word list".

It is regrettable that one should feel bound to warn the reader against the misprints found in the book. The author writes in this connexion in a letter to the editor of this Journal: "I unfortunately had no opportunity of correcting the proofs, hence a number of inconsistencies and some typographical errors." Generally speaking, however, such errors extend only to verbal inaccuracies which any intelligent reader is able to detect and correct, and cannot, therefore, impair the undoubted usefulness of the book.

I shall take the liberty of making two remarks which I wish to present to the author's consideration. On p. 4 *Hama* is given as a Kurdish name for *Muhammad*. I believe that in Kurdish *Hama* stands for *Hamad*, *Ahmo* for *Ahmad*,

and Muho or Muno for Muhammad. On pp. 26-7 1 think that hayya means simply "there is", and that it is hardly correct to say that the sentence Hasan bāok i min hayya lays stress on the fact that Hasan and not another is my father. I did not know that such an anomaly was found in any Kurdish dialect.

What is more precious for a philologist is the second part of the book, or the vocabulary. I wish the author had here restricted himself to concrete terms and given more space to their different shades of meaning. After all, the abstract words are mostly expressed in Kurdish either by Arabic or by Persian vocables. For instance, it is somewhat useless to know what is the Kurdish equivalent of "heterogeneous" or "importation", because notions such as these cannot be adequately expressed in a half-primitive language, and we would have been more grateful to have fuller information of how e.g. the word weran, which in the last analysis means "desert, desolate, ruined", has come to translate the English word "homeless", which I would have rendered by bai-māl, bai-khāna. It is this extension of the limits of the vocabulary beyond what Kurdish can really express that has possibly caused the author to omit words which by all standards should have figured in a Kurdish dictionary. this category may be counted the verb "to kill" and the substantive "louse", etc.

We must quickly put a stop to the enumeration of these slight imperfections found, in a lesser or greater degree, in any other book, and heartily thank Major Soane for his successful attempt to lay before us, in such a precise and accurate way, the rudiments of a language which deserves to be better studied by Orientalists. Special thanks are also due to the Government Department (presumably the India Office) responsible for the appearance of such books, which greatly enlarge our angle of vision in our philological and historical studies of the peoples of the Middle East.

II.—Assyrian, Kurdish, and Yezidis. Indexed Grammar and Vocabulary, with a few grammatical notes. By Agha Petros Ellow. pp. 87. Baghdad: Government Press, 1920.

This work differs from the preceding one by its method, by its size, and by the dialect of Kurdish treated in it. Its Kurdish is that spoken by all Yezidis and Kurds between the Black Sea, Lake Urmia, and Mosul. It deals also with another language, the vulgar Syriac, totally different in structure and genius from Kurdish; further, this vulgar Syriac section embraces only the dialect used by the Eastern Christians who inhabit the Hekkari region of Kurdistan. The book is, therefore, bilingual, and written in a very concise form. All the grammatical part of it has only taken four short pages, but it contains paradigms for the conjugation of verbs.

It is unfortunate that the author should have made use of the word Assyrian instead of Syriac or Aramaic. I am aware of the fact that in the sphere of nationality these Eastern Syrians call themselves Assyrians (a word sanctioned by Dr. Wigram, their well-known missionary), but in the sphere of philology the language they speak is vulgar Syriac, and to avoid confusion this last word should have been used.

In the matter with which it deals this little book is accurate, but on p. 10 the Kurdish word goshtay paie, meaning "mutton", is given as translating "beef", and the word goshtay gayie, meaning "beef", erroneously translates "mutton", while the Syriac translation of the two is correct.

I take here the opportunity of drawing the attention of philologists to the fact that Kurdish has preserved some ancient Aryan roots disseminated in various languages of Europe in a clearer form than any other Eastern dialect. The following words may serve as examples:—

Buche (German), buk. In Kurdish the word signifies "young tree, copse, thick plantation", as in another German

- word busche, with which we may compare English bush, A.S. bysc, and Scandinavian busk.
- Chicken, chucka. The Kardish root is nearer to English than that of Scandinavian, Dutch, German, and A.S. dialects, in which ch appears as k. Still more remote is Persian $j\bar{u}jah$. Cf. vulgar Syriac $ch\bar{u}ka$, possibly from Kurdish.
- Dale, dali. The word is also used by some Syriac-speaking Christians under the form of dola. Found in Scandinavian, but not represented in Greek and Latin. Creek θόλος "vault" is somewhat farfetched, and Persian darrah, "valley," is equally remote.
- Dart, darid, jarīd. The first Kurdish word is nearer to French dard, and the second seems to have been influenced by Arabic-Persian jarīd. Cognate with A.S. dara's and O.H.G. tart, etc. We may also compare the Eastern Turkish verb tart-mak, "to dart," equivalent to Kurdish darid avaitin, "to throw a dart."
- Drop, dlop, dropa, from the verb dlop-andin. Cf. vulgar Syriac dalōpa. Other comparisons in Skeat.
- Duc (French), in the sense of horned owl, tok. The same word is found in Sanskrit. This comparison has happily weakened Littré's opinion that the origin of the French duc is connected with the functions of a duke.
- čριον, heri. The Kurdish word refers to wool and long fur of animals. In Pushtu varai. See further Pictet's Les Origines indo-europ. ii, 23.
- Foveo (Latin), vah-in. The Kurdish verb means "to torrefy".

 Cf. Greek φώζω. Concerning this word see Pott,

 Etymol. Forsch. ii, 2, 256. In speaking of corn

 Kurdish vah-in or vaw-in means "to shell", "to boll".
- Hallen (German), kallin. The Kurdish verb is exactly used in the sense of "to bleat" (sheep). The interchange of h and k in Aryan languages is well-known.

- Horu (A.S.), kori. The Kurdish word means exactly "mud, moist earth". Cf. O.H.G. horaw.
- Isen (A.S.), asin. The Kurdish word, which is similar to Pahlawi asin, means exactly "iron", and is nearer to German eisen than to modern English iron. M.H.G. isern has both sounds. Zend ayanh is somewhat remote, but Persian āhan is nearer.
- Melken (German), milten, mitten. The Kurdish verb means exactly "to suck". Cf. Greek ἀμελγω and Lithuanian melzu. The interchange of k, t, z is very common. Cognate with Latin mulgere, but Skt. merj, "to wipe," is remote in meaning. See Skeat under "milk" for further details.
- Nullah, nuāla. In vulgar Syriac nuhāla, and in Hindustāni nāla. The Aramaic naḥla, "stream, rivulet, dale," seems also to be cognate with it.
- πομφός, pepef. The Kurdish word primarily means "crop of birds", and by extension every protuberant thing. Cf. Latin popula and popilla and Bavarian pampfen. Cf. also English pimple, about which see Skeat and Murray.
- Schaben (German), shav-tin. We may also compare Latin scabo, Swedish skafva, Dutch schaven, Danish scave, Gothic scavan, all in the sense of "to scrape". To it are also related Middle English schaven and A.S. sceafan, "to shave."
- Sting (Swedish), in the sense of gad-fly, breeze, stang. The Kurdish word means "wasp", and the comparison is obvious. The "stinging" wasp may even have a certain relation to the English verb sting and its Teutonic equivalents.
- Thweran (A.S.), twiran, tiran, "to coagulate, to churn" (milk). We may compare also O.H.G. dweran and English twirl. The Anglo-Saxon verb has even given birth to thwirel, "a whisk to whip milk," not represented in Kurdish. On the other hand, Kurdish has

preserved the adjective twir or tir, "thick, coagulated," with which we may compare French dur, etc.

Tiur (Danish), tior, tivor-k. The Kurdish word generally means "wild turtle-dove", while the Danish means "wood-grouse", but the comparison between the two is obvious.

Tun (A.S.), dun, duna, "pasture, dry hay, straw." We may compare German zoun and Keltic dun. All seem to be related to Aramau tebn, tewn and Arabic tibn, "dry hay, straw."

Vaggs (Gothic), bangah, vangah. The Kurdish word means "the rising ground near the bed of a river". The reduplication of g in Gothic is a sign of the disappearance of a letter; from Kurdish we learn that this letter was n.

Woold, bili-nan. Dutch woelen, German wuhlen, and A.S. wilian, "to twist," are even nearer to the Kurdish root bilin, "to twist." Curiously enough, the word is missing in Skeat. The final d in the English verb is, of course, excrescent.

A. MINGANA.

RECENT ARABIC LITERATURE

النصرانية وآدابها بين عرب الجاهلية, II, 1. Beyrout: Imprimerie Catholique. 1919.

In this book Père Cheikho continues his researches into the pre-Islamic Christianity of Arabia, with the learning and accuracy which characterize the work of the Jesuit College of Beyrut. The present fasciculus contains collections of passages which deal with the art of writing, with the forms of proper names, with Christian institutions, and with allusions to the content of the Christian Scriptures. The passages are in the main verses attributed to pre-Islamic poets, but the author also utilizes proverbs which claim antiquity and statements by Arabic authors of Islamic

times. There is no doubt about the utility of his collections, though it may be fancied that European critics will want to submit them to that process of sifting whence their function derives its name. How much this process will leave cannot be guessed a priori; but certainly some matter will be rejected as irrelevant. Thus Hassān b. Thābit is quoted for the Angel Gabriel; surely the source of his knowledge was the Prophet Mohammed, whose court-poet he was. In the case of many of the verses cited the evidence of genuineness would seem to be slight. However, Père Cheikho's merit in bringing together and lucidly arranging all this matter will be gratefully acknowledged.

رصبح الأعشى للقلقشندي, Volumes XI-XIV. Cairo: Government Press. 1917-18.

This masterpiece of Arabic typography, of which the earlier volumes have been noticed in this Journal, has now reached completion; at least, as far as the text is concerned, for it may be hoped that the editors will not fail to supply the muchneeded index. The matter contained in the last four volumes is chiefly rules for and specimens of official correspondence and other documents, but the author casually preserves a vast quantity of historical, geographical, and other information which is of great interest. Vol. xiii seems to be specially rich in historical matter, containing among other things a history of the enactments against the dhimmis (Jews and Christians) in Islamic states and various truces drawn up in Crusading times; Qalqashandi, unlike many writers on diplomacy, takes the trouble to give date and place of most of the models which he preserves. Owing to the excellence of the editing it is fairly easy to find what is wanted in these fourteen volumes, but careful indices would form a valuable addition to the work. Anything like an analysis of the contents-of which some of the most important were excerpted by Wüstenfeld in his Geographie und Verwaltung des Aegypten-would far exceed the limits of a "short notice".

Moslem Sects and Schisms. By 'Abd al-Qāhir Ibn Ṭāhir al-Baghdādi; translated from the Arabic by Kate Chambers Seelye, Ph.D. Part I. New York: Columbia University Press. 1920.

The work al-Farq bain al-Firaq, whose author died A.D. 1037, has been before the world in its Arabic original since 1910, when it was edited by an Egyptian scholar, Mohammed Badr. 'The Arabic edition has many merits, but not a few misprints, some of which have been corrected by European reviewers. Few Arabic works more certainly deserve translation, and it is clear that Dr. Seelye has gone through the courses of study which are requisite for such a task, and has executed it with great ability. In her introduction she has furnished the information which we should expect to find there, and has in addition provided a brief bibliography of works dealing with the subject. In the latter we miss the Persian treatise Kitāb Bayān al-Adyān, printed in the first volume of Schefer's Chrestomathie Persane, which furnished M. Huart with the true name of the author of the Livre de la Création et de l'Histoire published by him, which might perhaps be regarded as belonging to this literature, and the brief notice of the Sects in the Ghunyah of 'Abd al-Qādir Gīlānī (Cairo, 1288, i, pp. 73-84). To these we must now add the notice in the work of Qalqashandi, xiii, 222-51, which is mainly concerned with the oaths taken by the various sects. The matter which Dr. Seelye has had to render is often highly technical, but she appears well able to cope with such difficulties.

D. S. MARGOLIOUTH.

LE Poème Sumérien du Paradis, du Déluge, et de la Chute de l'homme. By S. Langdon. Leroux, Paris; Luzac & Co., London. 1919.

The French edition of Professor Langdon's work on the remarkable Sumerian text from Nippur which he first brought

to light is practically a new book. He has taken advantage of the discussion and controversies excited by his work to revise it throughout and to incorporate into it a large amount of new material. Fresh light on the subject has been thrown by the texts from Assur published in Germany, as well as by other texts that have been found among the tablets from Nippur in the University Museum of Philadelphia.

When Professor Langdon discovered the text the name of the hero Uttu, or Tagtug as he read it provisionally, was unknown. Since then Uttu has become a familiar figure to Assyriologists as the reputed originator of the various arts and crafts of the ancient world and the father of civilization. The fact exemplifies how little we still know about the beliefs and traditions of early Babylonia, and how dangerous, therefore, it is to argue in regard to them from negative knowledge.

As a Sumerian scholar Professor Langdon has very few rivals, and his translations of Sumerian texts may consequently be regarded as authoritative. But it must be remembered that our knowledge of Sumerian is still to a large extent in the tentative stage, and that where there is no Semitic translation to guide us our rendering of a Sumerian word or phrase often admits of more than one interpretation. Hence there is always room for regision, and with the increase of materials the first pioneering work can always be improved.

The translation of the texts occupies the second half of the Professor's volume. A very valuable introduction fills the first 156 pages. It is by far the best and most brilliant work on the Babylonian conception of the Creation that has yet been written, and it contains a large amount of new and interesting matter. The author has spared no pains to bring it up to date and has arranged his materials in a masterly fashion.

I believe he is right in holding that the Poem contains an account, not only of the Creation, but also of Paradise, and that this latter forms, as it were, the background of the Biblical story of the Garden of Eden. Like Professor Langdon

also, I believe that Dilmun, the Sumerian Paradise, was situated on the eastern coast of the Persian Gulf, and is not to be identified with the island of Bahrein, as supposed by Rawlinson and Meissner. That the small islands near the coast were included in Dilmun was natural; hence Sargon speaks of its king Uperi as seeking refuge "in the middle of the sea". But since copper is stated to have come from Dilmun it cannot be Bahrein, unless we assume that it was merely a depot to which the copper was brought from elsewhere. Some years ago I suggested that Uperi is the Biblical Ophir, Sargon having confounded the name of the capital with that of the king.

A very interesting text relating to the Creation is a bilingual (Sumerian and Semitic) poem found at Assur, of which Professor Langdon gives a translation. Here man is stated to have been formed from the blood of two "Artisan deities", who were put to death for the purpose on the Uzuma, which binds together the sky and the earth. Here, as elsewhere, the blood is the equivalent of life, and man is created in order to carry on the services of the gods. Mankind is further divided into the two classes of the artisan (ummanu) and the nomad (nuhu); it is the Biblical antithesis of Cain and Abel, and reflects the social conditions of Babylonia with its settled artisan and agricultural population on the one side and the nomad Beduin with his herds on the other. To the Sumerian the creation of man meant the creation of civilized man.

Many pages are devoted to pointing out the differences and contrasts in the cosmological theories of Eridu and Nippur. Eridu and Nippur represented the two chief theological schools of Sumerian Babylonia, and it was the amalgamation of their doctrines which resulted in the theology and theosophy of Semitic Babylonia. But originally these doctrines differed fundamentally, as I first tried to show many years ago in my Hibbert Lectures. To the Sumerians of the South and the North the creation and fall of man, the origin of evil and the introduction of death into the world, had in primitive times

presented themselves under wholly different aspects. Long centuries were required before Babylonia became possessed of a common theology. Professor Langdon notes in this connexion that the legend of Adapa, or rather Adamu, which embodied the beliefs of Eridu, has undergone a Canaanitish revision in the form of it which is preserved among the Tel el-Amarna tablets. The serpent also seems to have belonged to the traditions of Eridu, and Professor Langdon observes that the Hebrews appear to have preserved no memory of the time when Eve was a goddess under a serpent form. This, however, certainly was not the case in the later Hebraism with its stories of Lilith, the first wife of Adam. Indeed, that Khavvah was a serpent-goddess rests upon the very doubtful identification of the name with the Arabic hayya; we now know that Babylonian mythology admitted a serpent of evil as well as serpent divinities, and a tablet, unfortunately much mutilated, has been discovered at Boghaz Keui which contains a Hittite text describing how the evil serpent Illuyankas was overcome and slain.

A. H. SAYCE.

Short Notices of some Recent Publications on Chinese Subjects

Mémoires concernant l'Asie Orientale. Vol. III. 14×11 . 220 pp., 15 plates. Paris : Leroux, 1919.

The greater part (173 pages) is taken up with an important article entitled Le Jet des Dragons, by the late Professor E. Chavannes. It deals with the Taoistic rite, practised in China from the seventh to the fourteenth century, of throwing into caves, ravines, or springs prayers for longevity and other boons inscribed on plates of metal or stone. The rest of the volume is filled with Les Représentations de Játaka dans l'Art Bouddhique, by M. Foucher, accompanied with a number of excellent illustrations.

Fêtes et Chansons Anciennes de la Chine. Par Marcel Granet. $10 \times 6\frac{1}{2}$. 301 pp., 1 plate. Paris : Leroux, 1919.

The enterprising author of this fascinating work has indeed succeeded in making live many of the dry bones of Chinese classical poetry. Refusing to be trammelled by the traditional interpretations of native commentators and their Western followers, he endows songs of the Shih Ching with unsuspected human interest. No student of the literature, religion, or social life of ancient China can afford to miss reading it.

The Prix Stanislas Julien has been awarded to M. Granet for this book.

LA POLYGYNIE SORORALE ET LE SORORAT DANS LA CHINE FÉODALE. Étude sur les formes anciennes de la polygamie chinoise. Par Marcel Granet. 10 × 6½. 93 pp. Paris : Leroux, 1920.

Under the term "sororate" coined by Sir James Fraser, who studied the subject in *Totemism and Exogamy*, the author writes about marriage customs in ancient China. He finds allusions in classical books to the right, and even the duty, of a man to marry his deceased wife's sister, and also to the institution of polygamy with sisters. An interesting and original thesis, though probably its conclusions will not all meet with general acceptance.

Von Chinas Göttern. Reisen in China. By F. Perzyński. $10 \times 7\frac{1}{2}$. 262 pp., 80 plates. München: K. Wolff, 1920.

This is a pleasantly written account, well illustrated with photographs, of the author's travels in widely separated parts of China, special notice being given to masterpieces of religious art encountered by the way. An interesting feature of the book is the republication of his discoveries concerning the provenance of the wonderful Tang pottery lo-han, one of which now reposes in the British Museum. The photographs and description of their hiding-place in a cave not far from

I Chou and the Western Tombs, some 60 miles south-west of Peking, satisfy the curiosity excited since the figure was acquired by the Museum in 1913.

CHINESE POTTERY STATUE OF A LOHAN. By R. L. Hobson. $10\frac{1}{2} \times 8\frac{1}{4}$. 7 pp., 1 plate (coloured). London: British Museum, 1920.

The Trustees of the British Museum offer a cheap shillingsworth in this pamphlet, which contains not only a valuable essay by a leading authority about the figure referred to in the foregoing note, but also a finely produced picture of it in colour.

Gems of Chinese Verse. Translated into English verse. By W. J. B. Fletcher. $8\frac{1}{2}\times 6$. 242 pp. Shanghai: Commercial Press, 1919.

More Gems of Chinese Poetry. Translated into English verse. By W. J. B. Fletcher. $8\frac{1}{2}\times6$. 208 pp. Shanghai: Commercial Press, 1919.

These two books claim our gratitude; for they represent the honest attempt of an enthusiast to translate some 275 poems by famous Chinese poets. Moreover, they offer the unwonted advantage of the Chinese text printed alongside each English version.

Dictons et Proverbes des Chinois habitant la Mongolie Sud-Ouest. Par le R. P. Joseph van Oost, Missionnaire de Scheut aux Ortos. Variétés Sinologiques No. 50. $10 \times 6\frac{1}{2}$. 358 pp. Shanghai: Imp. de l'Orphelinat de T'ou-sè-wè, 1918.

A collection of 1,000 current sayings which will be welcomed by folklorists as well as by students of the language. Its usefulness, however, is not enhanced by the attitude which results in all allusions to native religious beliefs being lumped together in the subject index under the heading "Superstition & culte". If one wishes, for instance, to look up proverbs relating to Lao Tzŭ, it is necessary to wade through no less than fifty-five references; while things like boisson, chien. rat, etc., have headings of their own.

Mélanges sur la Chronologie Chinoise. I. Notes concernant la chronologie chinoise. Par les PP. Havret et Снамвеаu, S.J. II. Prolégomènes à la concordance néoménique. Par le P. Hoang. Variétés Sinologiques No. 52. $10 \times 6\frac{1}{2}$. x + 320 pp. Shanghai : Imp. de la Miss. Cath., 1920.

Translators of Chinese have long wanted reference tables to supplement the indispensable volumes of the same series, Nos. 24 and 29. This scholarly work makes it possible to find exact European equivalents to Chinese dates. Surely it is due to an oversight that there is omitted from its bibliography that useful book published in English by Father Huang in 1904, A Notice of the Chinese Calendar and a Concordance with the European Calendar (from A.D. 1644 to 2020).

SER MARCO Polo. Notes and addenda to Sir Henry Yule's edition, containing the results of recent research and discovery. By Henri Cordier. 9×6 . x + 161 pp., 1 plate. London: John Murray, 1920.

With his usual scholarly thoroughness Professor Cordier has collected a vast amount of fresh material in this volume, which is uniform with and serves as a supplementary commentary to his famous third edition of Yule's *Marco Polo*.

The Trade and Administration of China. By H. B. Morse. Third Revised Edition. $8\frac{1}{2} \times 5\frac{1}{2}$. xv + 505 pp. Map and 14 illustrations. London: Longmans, 1921. Shanghai: Kelly & Walsh, 1921.

A new edition of this invaluable handbook is specially welcome in view of the many changes that China has undergone during the last few years. Trade statistics and the taxation system are among the more important subjects that have been brought up to date. The chapter on the Government of the Republic is to a great extent new matter, and that on opium has been much extended.

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A collection of 1,000 current sayings which will be welcomed by folklorists as well as by students of the language. Its usefulness, however, is not enhanced by the attitude which results in all allusions to native religious beliefs being lumped together in the subject index under the heading "Superstition & culte". If one wishes, for instance, to look up proverbs relating to Lao Tzŭ, it is necessary to wade through no less

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Ancient Chinese Figured Silks, excavated by Sir Aurel Stein at ruined sites of Central Asia. Drawn and described by F. H. Andrewes. Reprinted from *The Burlington Magazine*, July and September, 1920. 12½ × 9½. 20 pp., 15 illustrations. London: Quaritch, 1920.

Of supreme importance to all students of Asian decorative design is this able monograph by one who not only discusses with expert knowledge the æsthetic as well as the technical aspects of a number of ancient examples of the weaver's art, but represents the fabrics themselves with extraordinary success in a series of pen and ink drawings. There is a preface by Sir Aurel Stein, who cites the need of assuring an open passage westwards for the Chinese trade in silk textiles as the motive that first led Wu-ti to send an expedition into Central Asia. No hint of this is contained in chapter exxiii of Ssŭ-ma Ch'ien. On the contrary, it is there expressly stated that it was desire to overcome the Hsiung-nu that prompted the Emperor to send Chang Ch'ien on his famous political mission. No doubt Sir Aurel Stein bases his theory on other texts.

W. PERCEVAL YETTS.

OBITUARY NOTICES

Dr. O. Codrington,

Late Honorary Vice-President of the Royal Asiatic Society.

The death of Dr. Oliver Codrington will be deeply regretted by all members of the Royal Asiatic Society who were familiar with his careful supervision of their Library in Albemarle Street for many years and the ever-ready help he was ready to give to all readers and inquirers.

Dr. Codrington, in addition to his ordinary work as Librarian, compiled for the Society a valuable catalogue of the Arabic, Persian, and Turkish MSS. in the Library (1892). His personal work, however, was mainly in the direction of Oriental numismatics, of which probably the most important outcome was his excellent manual of Musalman numismatics, published in our monograph series in 1904. This is an invaluable introduction to the subject, and only those numismatists who went through the toil and trouble, when far from museums and libraries, of obtaining a little elementary instruction when they first took up the subject can appreciate the value of a guide like this and also the labour involved in its composition. Dr. Codrington's earlier career was in New Zealand and Burma, but as early as 1873 he was a member of the Bombay branch of the R.A.S., and undertook to edit its Journal in 1874. To that Journal he contributed a number of valuable papers on various branches of Indian numismatics, including the coins of the Andhras, the Bahmanis, and . Kachch, and in 1891 he brought out a catalogue of the Society's collection of coins.

He became a member of the R.A.S. in 1877, and on his return from India in 1886 he at once became an active member, and in 1891 he became Honorary Librarian, a post which he continued to hold till he felt obliged to retire from it in 1919. He joined the R. Numismatic Society in 1886, and

soon became librarian to that Society also. He continued his numismatic work for both societies. For the R.A.S. his most important work was the Manual of Musalman Numismatics, already alluded to, but the following papers in our Journal may be noted:—

Notes on Musalman coins collected by Mr. G. P. Tate in Seistan: JRAS. 1904, p. 681.

Do. 1905, p. 547.

Notes on coins collected in Seistan by Sir A. H. McMahon: JRAS. 1911, 3. 779.

Coinage of Husayn Baikara: JRAS. 1913, p. 432.

The following papers appeared in the Numismatic Chronicle:—

Coins of the Beni Rusul, etc.: N.C. 1894, p. 88.

A coin of Taghlak Shāh: N.C. 1894, p. 185.

Coinages of Cutch and Kāthiāwār: N.C. 1895, p. 59.

Coins of the Bahmani Dynasty: N.C. 1898, p. 259.

Some rare Oriental coins (Umayyad and 'Abbāsī): N.C. 1902, p. 267.

Coins of the King of Jinns: N.C. 1913, p. 123.

Of the papers those on the coins of Husayn Baikara, of the Bahmanis, and of Kachch are of great value.

Dr. Codrington's services to Numismatics were recognized by the bestowal on him of the Medal of the Royal Numismatic Society in 1911, an honour which he shared with such wellknown Oriental numismatists as Edward Thomas, Sir Alexander Cunningham, Stanley Lane-Poole, and Wladimir von Tiesenhausen.

M. Longworth Dames.

The Centenary of Sir Richard Francis Burton

On March 19 we celebrated the Centenary of one of Britain's noblest sons—Sir Richard Francis Burton.

His fame as an Orientalist and anthropologist was only surpassed by his ranking with the world's greatest explorers.

Burton seems to have been drawn to Oriental languages from the earliest time, for when still at Oxford we find him teaching himself Arabic—individual coaching being then unknown. As soon as he had decided to join the Indian Army he began to sacrifice his boxing and fencing for the study of Hindustani.

He left England on June 18, 1842, to join the Native Bombay Infantry at Gujarat, and continued his Hindustani during the voyage. After proceeding to Baroda, Burton put in twelve hours' work a day, and as a result passed first in both Hindustani and Gujarati. An appointment to Sind as regimental interpreter followed, and very shortly another language—Maharàtta—was added to the other two languages in which Burton passed first. The list increased, and before he left India. Persian, Sindhi, Sanskrit, Punjabi, Pushtu, Arabic, Telugu. Turkish, and Armenian were added!

Apart from his books on India, Burton wrote two papers for the Journal of the Bombay branch of the Royal Asiatic Society, which were both published in Vol. III of the Journal for January, 1849. The first of these was "Notes and Remarks on Dr. Dorn's Chrestomathy of the Pushtu or Afighan Language" (pp. 58-69), and the second was "A Grammar of the Jātāki or Belochki Dialect" (pp. 84-125).

A long furlough in England prompted Burton to carry out a project he had already formed in Sind to study the "inner life of the Moslem", and so, after obtaining a year's special leave, he started on his famous journey to Mecca and Medma in 1853. It would be superfluous to give details of the great journey, for it will remain for all time as one of the most hazardous and intensely interesting journeys ever recorded. His Personal Narrative of a Pilgrimage to El-Medinah and Meccah, 1855-6, is now a classic, and ranks among the world's greatest travel books.

Immediately after the pilgrimage began Burton's great career as an African explorer, and had the Government of that day looked favourably upon him there is no knowing to what heights he would have risen. In 1861 Burton married Isabel Arundell, and entered the service of the Foreign Office the same year. He held four Consulates—Fernando Po (1861–5), Santos, Brazil (1865–9), Damascus (1869–71), and Trieste (1872–90). Although exiled at Trieste, a place ill-suited to his health, Burton was able to obtain leave frequently, and we find him paying a return visit to India (1875–6), where he continued the study of his beloved Camöens, exploring Midian (1877–9), from an archæological and mineralogical point of view, and seeking gold on the Gold Coast (1881–2). All this time Oriental and anthropological details were slowly being collected in his numerous note-books, and most of this mass of information found its way into his great translation of Alf Laylah wa Laylah—the Thousand Nights and a Night.

There is no room here to discuss this work in detail, to compare it with the translations of Lane, Payne, and Mardrus, and to speak of the various MSS. used. Suffice to say that Burton's translation is the one always chosen for Oriental students who want to translate word for word and see exactly the original sense of any particular passage. In order to preserve the spirit of the original as much as possible, Burton retained the Saj'a or cooing of a dove—the passages in cadenced prose which appear as little eddies of song set like gems in the story.

Writers have often commented adversely on Burton's constant use of archaic or foreign words, but he was merely carrying out the difficult task he had set himself—to translate noun for noun and verb for verb. The composite nature of the MSS. produced local and uncommon words, to meet which no modern English equivalent existed, thus by using fourteenth and fifteenth century words he not only translated literally, but preserved the spirit, naïveté, and atmosphere of the mediaeval East. Although not a classical Oriental scholar, his practical knowledge of the East will always stand alone and unsurpassed.

Of his personal character there still remain some who can

speak with real knowledge; but those few who were honoured with his intimacy, those few who probed beneath the rugged surface—they know what a jewel lay hid for those who cared to seek, and to-day hold the memory of his friendship as the most sacred possession of their lives.

It is not inappropriate to sum up this slight tribute to his memory with a few lines from his well-known "Kasîdah":—

True to thy Nature, to Thyself, Fame and Disfame nor hope nor fear:

Enough to thee the small still voice age thund'ring in thine inner ear.

This "1" may find a future Life, a nobler copy of our own, Where every riddle shall be ree'd, where every knowledge shall be known:

N. M. Penzer.

Maulvi Shaikh Laigahmad Ansari, M.A.S.B., M.R.A.S.

The late Maulvi Shaikh Laiqahmad Ansari, an Oriental scholar of Delhi, came of the family of Shaikh Ansarian of Kairana (U.P.).

Mr. Ansari was for many years on the Staff of the Morning Post of Delhi. He was the author of the Urdu Self Instructor and Idiomatic Urdu for Public Speeches, and was awarded a grant from the Government of the Punjab for the first-named publication, which has been pronounced as most useful by prominent educational authorities. The second book was dedicated by permission to the late Lord Minto, when Viceroy of India, and Mr. Ansari received autograph letters from Lord Ampthill and Sir James Latouche eulogizing the book.

His brilliant scholarship won for him a great reputation in the country, and he was sent on a deputation to Calcutta by Her Highness the Begum of Bhopal in connexion with research work.

NAZEER AHMAD ANSARI.

NOTES OF THE QUARTER

(January-April, 1921)

The Council elected Mr. Robert Mond to be Joint Honorary Treasurer and member of Council. The following fifty-four were elected members of the Society during the quarter:—

Babu S. Kishore Banerjee, M.A. Rai Chaudhuri B. Bhushan. Mr. S. N. Buchia. B.E. Mr. W. B. G. Carmichae!. Mr. S. B. Chatterji. Rai Sahib N. C. Chatterji. Mr. W. S. Cotterill. Mr. M. B. Lai Dar, B.Sc., LL.B.Mr. J. N. Das, B.A. Lady Deane Captain R. B. Dent. Pandit K. N. Dube, B.A., LL.B. Mr. R. A. Eden. Mr. C. Elgood. Mr. J. H. F. Evans. Mr. Henry Farmer. Mr. H. J. Frampton, I.C.S. Mr. U. T. Raja Gopala. Mr. Cyril Gurner. Mr. R. M. Gwynn, M.A. Mr. M. Habib, B.A Mr. U. Abdul Hamid. Mr. R. L. Hobson. His Excellency the Japanese Ambassador. Miss E. J. Kemp.

Mr. J. N. Maitra. Mr. S. A. Mazhary.

Mr. H. Mookerjea. Mr. A. P. Mullick. Mr. C. A. Pittar, I C.S. Mr. S. Qureshi. Pandit B. Rai. Mr. C. Kunham Raja, B.A. Rao Sahib K. Krishna Rao. Dr. M. A. Rashid. Rev. Wm. H. Rees, D.D. Mr. D. V. Rege. Professor S. C. Sarkar Mr. A. P. Banerji Sastri, M.A. Mr. P. J. Scotland, M.A. Mr. Λ. Sefi. Sir Malcolm Seton, K.C.B. Mr. A. R. Siddigi. Mr. K. Gangananda Sinha, B.A. Professor M. Sinha, B.A. Professor W. B. Stevenson, D.Litt. Mr. G. C. Tambe. Rev. D. G. Thirtle. Mr. H. Maung Tin. Rt. Rev. N. Trollope, Bishop in Corea. M. S. Wali Khan Bahadur. Mr. A. R. C. Westlake. Mr. A N. J. Whymant.

Mr. G. Willoughby-Meade.

On January 18 Miss H. C. Bowser gave a lantern lecture on "The Buddhist Temples of the Diamond Mountain of Korea". On February 8 Miss R. Houston spoke of her experiences under the Bolshevist rule at Tashkent in Russian Turkestan, while on March 8 Mr. D. A. Lane (late of the South Persia Rifles) read a paper on the Nomad Tribes of South-West Persia; Mr. R. Levy on April 12 treating of an old caravan

route under the title of "Baghdad to Tehran: a new variation of an old theme".

The Anniversary Meeting will take place on May 10.

Sir Richard Temple and Mr. Beveridge have sent gifts of £10 each to the funds of the Society, writing that they forward these donations because they are unable to respond to the appeal to enlist new members.

Lord and Lady Pentland invited the Council and members of the Society on February 24 to a reception to meet the Earl and Countess of Reading before their departure for India.

Dr. F. W. Thomas, Hon. Secretary, now in India, was elected an Honorary Member of the Bombay Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society on February 4. He is expected in England early in June.

Will any member, able to do reviewing for the Journal, kindly send his name and the subject in which he specializes to the Secretary?

Colonel Knox-Niven has presented to the Society an interesting coat of mail which he found in 1901 when camping 4 miles from Rawal Pindi at a spot about twenty feet from the reputed tomb of Bucephalus, the horse of Alexander the Great. The coat was found with a tent-peg driven through it, and was in a rusty and much damaged condition. It has now been cleaned and mounted, and will be exhibited in the Society's rooms.

A very similar coat will be found represented on plate cxl of Joseph Skelton's Engraved Illustrations of Antient Armour from the Collection at Goodrich Court... with the descriptions of Dr. Meyrick (London, 1830); and an example can be seen in the Indian section of the Victoria and Albert Museum (lent by Field-Marshal Viscount Kitchener of Khartoum). This is inscribed in Devanagari characters "Raja Abhai Singh

of Jodhpur", and dated 1750. In this case there are five rows of laminated plates at the back, and the links, alternately punched and riveted, are of a different type. The coat illustrated by Skelton has, like the present example, three rows of laminated plates, but in this case also there is no corresponding similarity of the links, each of which was divided by a cross-bar. In the coat found by Colonel Knox-Niven the links are riveted, and are homogeneous throughout except on the right breast, where a stronger link has been employed. Members interested in the matter are referred to the "Catalogue of Ancient Helmets and Mail", by Baron Alexander de Cosson and W. Burges, Arch. Journ., vol. xxxvii (1881), pp. 563 et seq., and to ch. xiv, vol. ii of Sir Guy Laking's Record of European Armour and Arms, where the difficulties of attempting to assign an approximate date to a coat of mail are fully set out. As Meyrick says (op. cit.), "this sort of armour . . . being handed down as a kind of heirloom in a family, renders it impossible to assign the date of it or any satisfactory evidence." The links approximate to those upon European mail of the sixteenth century, and the most that can be conjectured is that it is of much earlier date than the Kitchener suit referred to above. Its present weight is 19 lb. 3 oz.

The coat has been cleaned and mounted under the supervision of Mr. S. J. Camp (Inspector of the Armouries at the Wallace Collection), to whom the Council is also indebted for the above notes.

NOTICE TO MEMBERS

The Society will be glad to have copies of the Journal of the undermentioned dates, as they are out of print:—

Old Series.—1842, No. 13; 1861, No. 3.

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Present Series.—1903, Parts I and III; 1904, Parts II and III; 1919, Parts I and II.

Mrs. Lockyer, Tacket Wood, Kingsbridge, S. Devon, has many copies of the Society's *Journal* in good condition and would be glad to sell them to members at half-price.

The Council of the Royal Asiatic Society has decided to advance the price of its publications, including the *Journal* and offprints therefrom, by 25 per cent to all persons who are not members of the Society. Members will pay the same special prices as hitherto for books already published if they buy them direct from the Society for their own use.

In order to avoid small odd amounts the nearest sixpence above the figure so arrived at (i.e. the old price plus 25 per cent) will be taken as the new price. Thus a book published at 7s. 6d. will be sold retail at 9s. 6d., not 9s. $4\frac{1}{2}d$.

The Council has also decided to allow booksellers a uniform discount of 2d. in the shilling on all its publications. Non-members buying direct from the Society will pay the full retail price, or in the case of subscriptions to the Journal the full subscription.

The effect of the change will be to raise the retail price to non-members of single copies of the *Journal* from 12s. to 15s., and the trade price from 9s. to 12s. 6d.

For subscribers who are not members the rate for current annual sets will in future be £2 8s., whether the subscription is paid to a bookseller or direct to the Society, and the rate to the trade £2.

Offprints of papers in the *Journal* will in future be offered for sale at the following rates per copy. Applications for offprints should be made as soon as possible after the article appears in the *Journal* to enable an order to be placed with the printers before the type is broken up. The printers have engaged to keep the type standing for three months for the purpose.

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Back numbers of the *Proceedings* of the Society of Biblical Archeology are still in great demand, especially Vols. 30-38. Any numbers that members can spare will be most gratefully accepted.

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ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY'S JOURNAL

July, 1921

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JOURNAL OF THE ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY 1921

PART III.—JULY

Gujarati Phonology

By R. L. TURNER

Introduction

1. In India, perhaps as much as in any linguistic area, we are faced with an extensive mixture of dialects from the earliest times. The conditions have seldom been such as make for the evolution of a number of sharply differentiated languages. Constant invasions, the movements of great armies, the attraction of vast crowds of pilgrims from distant parts to centres of religious worship, the far wanderings of innumerable ascetics, the influence on illiterate peoples of travelling bards, the absence in the great plains of the north at least of pronounced natural boundaries, the continual interplay of kingdom with kingdom, a district being now in this political area now in that—these conditions have all made for widespread borrowings in language, the extension of common linguistic changes over large areas and the formation of common mixed languages, of which modern Hindostani, spoken and understood in varying degree over the whole of northern and central India, is an excellent example.

This state of affairs, which makes it impossible to rely upon any of the documents to give an accurate picture of the language spoken by a given people at any given period, has been excellently described by Dr. J. Bloch.¹

¹ La formation de la langue marathe (quoted below as "Bloch"), pp. 1-37.

The result has been that the sound-changes, which chiefly distinguish the modern Indo-aryan languages, from the primitive as represented more or less in the Veda, were shared in common over the greater part of the area; and even the differences, such as the varying evolution of r or of ks, have been so confused by mutual borrowings of vocabulary, early as well as late, that it is in many cases well nigh impossible to unravel their history.

- 2. In Gujarātī we have at least a language, the speakers of which have felt for some centuries that it is a language of their own; and it has for a considerable period been spoken over a fairly well defined area. Moreover this area has enjoyed considerable political unity.¹ Although on its northern boundaries it merges into the closely connected language of Mārwārī, yet on its north-eastern boundary the thinly populated Ran of Cutch divides it from great intercourse with Sindhī. Further south comes the sea. In the east from the wild speakers of the closely connected Bhīl dialects the more civilized inhabitants of Gujarat were unlikely to make extensive borrowings; and on the south a fairly sharp linguistic line divides Gujarātī from its neighbour Marāthī.²
- 3. The documentary evidence for its more recent history is comparatively full. An extensive poetic literature goes back to the time of Narsingh Mētā (born A.D. 1413); 3 while the texts made known to us by Dr. Tessitori 4 written in a language which he called Old Western Rājasthānī and believed by him to be the common parent of both Gujarātī and Mārwārī, take us to about A.D. 1300. Beyond that Hemacandra describes a literary language, Saurasenī Apabhramsa, Founded perhaps on a language spoken some centuries before in the Gujarātī area. He also made a collection of desī words (i.e. words not

¹ Bombay Gazetteer, vol. i, pt. i. ² LSI., vol. ix, pt. iii, p. 324.

³ Ind. Ant., vol. xxiv, p. 74. The traditional text has been largely modernized.

⁴ Ind. Ant., vol. xliii-xlv.

⁵ Bloch, p. 31.

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And age with age, their triumphs and their toys,
And found what faith may read not and may read."

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explicable by the ordinary rules for deriving Prakrit words from Sanskrit), the majority of which undoubtedly belonged to the popular language of the district. Before that a previous scage in its evolution is reflected in the Sauraseni Prakrit: here, however, we have to deal with a language having a long history as a literary language behind it and so full of borrowings that it scarcely can be said to be founded on any one spoken dialect.

4. Sir G. A. Grierson 1 implies that it was the invading Gurjaras of A.D. 400-600 who were responsible for some of the characteristic peculiarities of the language as Gujarātī. For, he says, "it is an interesting fact that where they have not been absorbed into the rest of the population, as in the Plains of the Panjāb (where two districts, Gujarāt and Gujranwālā, are named after them) they are all found to speak some dialect of one and the same language, closely connected with eastern Rājasthānī and with Gujarātī. The grammar of the Gūjars of Swat is almost the same as that of the Rajputs of Jaipur." 2

Further, the Gurjaras appear to have settled in Gujarāt in considerable numbers. Pandit Bhagwanlal Indraji writes: "That nearly a fourth of the whole Hindu population of Gujarat are Lewa and Kadwa Kanbis (Gujar tribes), and that during the sixth, seventh and eighth centuries three Gujar chiefs divided among them the sway of the entire province, explains how the province of Gujarat came to take its name from the tribe of Gujars." 3

An examination of the Asoka inscriptions at Girnar leads to the same conclusion, that the language of the district at that time was not the direct ancestor of Gujarātī. In the two points where we can check dialectical difference observable to the present day—the treatment of r and of t and t an

¹ LSI., loc. cit., p. 323.
² Cf. also Bailey, Himalayan Dialects.

³ Bombay Gaz., vol. i, pt. i, p. 5.

agrees rather with Marāṭhī than Gujarātī. r is predominently represented by a (vrachā bhati vaḍhi bhataka daḍha kata kaca maga magavyā suhadaya usaṭa vistata vyāhata against u in paripucchā vuta); kṣ less certainly by cch (achāti chunati chudaka saṃchāya vrachā against kkh in ithījhakhamahāmātā khamitave saṃkhitena).¹ Gujarātī, on the other hand, shows the predominant treatment: r > i, u; kṣ > kkh.

It may well be, therefore, that the ancestor of Marāṭhī was further to the north in those days and that it was pushed south by the speakers of the ancestor of Gujarātī. Pandit Bhagwanlal says: "As a Rāṣṭrakūṭa copperplate of A.D. 888 brings the Konkan as far north as Variav on the Tapti, the extension of the name Gujarat to Lāṭa south of the Mahi seems to have taken place under Mussalman rule." ²

Lastly, seeing that the Gujars are supposed to have entered Gujarat from the east, by the Ratlam-Dohad route, it is interesting to note that northern Gujarātī reproduces the palatals c, ch, j, jh, by the sibilants s and z, recalling the development ch > s in Marāṭhī.

DEFINITIONS

5. Although the process of evolution in a language is continuous, it is convenient for purposes of reference to divide it into periods. In referring below to the different periods in the development of the modern Sanskritic languages of India the following terms will be used.

Indo-european (IE) denotes the period of comparative linguistic unity of the whole of our language group; Aryan the period of unity of the Persian and Indian (Sanskritic) branches.

Primitive Indian (PI) denotes the period of unity of the Aryan languages of India, when the stage of phonetic evolution had reached that generally indicated in the language of the Rigveda.

¹ Senart, vol. ii, pp. 330 and 333.

² Op. cit., p. 5, n. 1.

Middle Indian (MI) denotes the stage between the assimilation of consonant groups to the time of their simplification in most of the Indian languages, i.e. up to some time before A.D. 1300. The monuments of this stage are to be found in a number of what must have been popular words imported into the Rigveda, in the Pali texts, in the inscriptions of Asoka and subsequent inscriptions, in the various Prakrit and Apabhramsa texts, and to some extent in the changes that literary Sanskrit suffered through the influence of the spoken languages.

Modern Indian (ModI) denotes the stage reached after the simplification of double consonants, which in Gujarātī has occurred by A.D. 1300.

Old Western Rājasthānī (OWR) represents the stage of comparative linguistic unity of Gujarātī and Rājasthānī.

Where it is necessary to distinguish the Aryan languages of India from other Indian languages belonging to a different family, such as Dravidian, the term Indoaryan will be used.

Too great stress cannot be laid on the fact that none of these stages represents a complete and absolute linguistic unity. There were differences of dialect in Indo-european, as there must later have been in Aryan. The Aryan invaders did not enter India as a single body speaking a common language, but in different groups at varying intervals, speaking different dialects (a mixture of these dialects is seen in our earliest monument, the Rigveda), but sufficiently alike to be classed under the general head of Primitive Indian. Under the term Middle Indian must, of course, be comprised a great number of different dialects, both in space and time. In the OWR texts dialectical differences of considerable extent can be seen; while even in modern Gujarātī we do not reach linguistic; unity, except in so far as the literary language, arisen out of a mixture of dialects, is generally used and understood by the educated over the Gujarātī area.

. Loanwords

6. Loanwords, for the convenience of classification only (since there is no difference of principle involved), may be divided into three groups: namely loanwords A. from other contemporary spoken Indian languages; B. from the literary languages; C. from other languages.

A

7. For the reasons mentioned in the introduction there has been ever since their arrival in India mutual borrowing on an extensive scale between the different Indo-aryan languages. This is plainly mirrored in the Asoka inscriptions, where it probably is not due only to incorrect rendering of the edicts in a language other than that of the court that words displaying such mixture of different dialectical evolution are found in one and the same inscription: e.g. the appearance of PI ks both as kkh and as cch, or of PI r as i and as a. The political conditions of this period were particularly favourable to copious borrowing and the emergence of common languages. This extension of word-forms from one dialect group to others is reflected in the literary languages: for, as is known, a very considerable number of words, from Vedic times onwards, have found their way into the literary language from the spoken languages in a more advanced stage of phonetic evolution than the main body of words comprising the literary language. Speaking generally, the earlier these dialectical words find their way into the literary languages, the greater their extension in the spoken language proves to be. Thus danda- (RV), ghata- (Up.) showing the cerebral treatment of dr and rt in place of the dental, $k\bar{o}tha$ (Pali) showing the early elimination of double consonants, are of universal extension over the Indo-aryan languages. Other examples of these dialectical and practically common Indian loanwords will be found at §§ 18, 41, 42.

But borrowing, although doubtless more general at certain epochs when conditions are most favourable, never ceases in a country linguistically situated like India. Thus in Gujarātī we have from a language such as Marāthī which has initial accentuation: alto lac-dye (alakta-), tirchû crosswise (tiraśc-), pālkhī (paryaika-); in which ch > s: $\bar{u}s$ sugar-cane (iksu-); from Hindî or some dialect where v > b: bacvū to escape unhurt (Pkt. vaccai), bacāv escape, bajvū to be rung (vādya-), bajāvvā to ring, bas smell (vāsa-), bichānā bedding (vicchādana-), cōbo (caturveda-); from a Northwestern language where double consonants are preserved: baccū child, macchī fish, macchar mosquito; from a language where $-m - \sim -\tilde{v} - : gah\tilde{u}$ wheat $(g\bar{o}dh\bar{u}ma -)$, gosāī ascetic (gōsvāmin-), bhui ground, beside bhūmī (bhūmi-).

· B

8. Sanskrit, from the time it became a literary language (and there are many indications even in the Rigveda that its language already was literary in the sense that it represented an older phonetic stage than the then spoken languages), provided for the spoken languages the same inexhaustible fund for borrowing learned words as literary Latin did for its own descendants, the Romance languages. Since, however, a word once become current in a language, whatever its original source, undergoes any phonetic change that affects the language as a whole, it is now impossible to distinguish literary words borrowed at a period wher the difference in sound between the literary and the spoken language was still small.

Words, however, containing intervocalic stops and borrowed after the disappearance of the PI intervocalic stops are necessarily apparent. Early examples of such borrowings are to be seen in words whose ancestors in Prakrit show a double consonant beside a single one

in Sanskrit 1 (except, of course, where the double stop represents an assimilated consonant group, e.g. laggai < lagyati beside lagati). These double stops arose from the fact that at the time of their borrowing there were no single intervocalic stops in the language; and as the speaker in pronouncing a borrowed word uses, to represent its sounds, those sounds in his own language which seem to him most nearly to represent it (or, perhaps, more strictly speaking, which seem to him identical), the speakers in this case replaced the single stop (unknown in their language) of the borrowed Sanskrit word by a double stop (of which their own language then had very numerous examples). Instances of such words in Gujarātī are: ēk one (Pkt. ekka- borrowed from Skt. ēkawhich survives in Nep. yeutā one, beside yek), jitvū conquer (Pkt. jitta-, Skt. jita-), lākad wooden (Pkt. lakkuda-, Skt. lakuta-, which survives in Nep. lauro stick, Guj. lodo penis), thok collection (Pkt. thokka-, Skt. stoka-, which survives in thodu few).

It is probable that on the model of this equivalence of double stop to single stop, other words containing in Sanskrit a single continuant like l or v were borrowed with the continuant doubled. Such are H. $j\bar{o}ban$ youth (Pkt. jovvana-, Skt. yauvana-, which would normally survive in H. as $*j\bar{o}n$), $t\bar{e}l$ oil (Pkt. tella-, Skt. taila-, which would survive as $*t\bar{e}l$), $\bar{e}hv\bar{u}$ such (Ap. $ehava\bar{u}$, remodelled after eha- this, Pkt. evva-, Skt. $\bar{e}va$). The last two examples can be otherwise, though less probably, explained as being derived from *tailya- *aivya-.

9. Belonging to a different and later stratum are loanwords of the type bhagat devotee, ragat blood (bhaktarakta-). Here the anaptyptic insertion of the vowel (by which means the then unknown consonant group was reproduced by the speaker) brought into existence an

¹ Pischel, 890, 193, although the author gives a different explanation. Bloch, p. 105.

intervocalic breathed stop. The tendency to voice intervocalic breathed stops, which earlier had affected all such PI stops, being still in operation, breathed intervocalic stops of such loanwords (in which alone such stops could exist) became voiced. This tendency has come to an end by the time double stops have become single (although, for example, in Nepālī it is still in operation).

The so-called tatsama (or word borrowed from Sanskrit) need not necessarily differ in form from the Sanskrit only because it was borrowed in the past and so has suffered change. It may be the result of a tadbhava (or inherited word) being partially changed after a Sanskrit model. A Gujarātī instance is $\delta \bar{o}hv\bar{u}$ look well, in which the tadbhava $s\bar{o}hr\bar{u}$ has been influenced by the Skt. $\delta \bar{o}bhat\bar{e}$ (ts. $\delta \bar{o}bhv\bar{u}$).

Lastly, the tatsama does not always retain its form, even at the time of borrowing, because, as pointed out above, the speakers who make it part of their language reproduce its sounds by the nearest they have in their language. Thus in Hindi Sanskrit words containing k or initial v- will to-day be reproduced as tatsamas with ch or b-.

10. Probably Sanskrit was not the only literary language from which loanwords were taken. Pali, as the literary language of Buddhism, undoubtedly affected the spoken languages during the time of Buddhist ascendancy; but Pali loanwords would now be indistinguishable from Sanskrit loanwords.

The Prakrit of Jainism must have been of influence. Perhaps under this head should be put $r\bar{\epsilon}\eta$ night (J.Pkt. $raya\eta\bar{\imath}$, Skt. $rajan\bar{\imath}$), $v\bar{\epsilon}\eta$ word (Pkt. $vaya\eta\bar{\imath}a$ -, Skt. vacana-), which would as original tadbhavas have appeared as $*r\bar{a}n$ $*v\bar{a}n$.

Finally the literary and traditional language of the bards cannot but have played some part in modifying the language of its hearers.

C

11. That the Aryan invaders borrowed from the languages of the peoples they conquered, and that the conquered in adopting the language of their conquerors retained some of their own words is probable but as yet lacks confirmation. In this respect Dr. Bloch's indication 1 that the Indo-aryan languages, as far as concerned intervocalic consonants, went the same way as the Dravidian, is suggestive.

Later an extensive vocabulary was borrowed from Persian and Arabic under the influence of the Muhammadan rulers; a smaller from French and Portuguese traders; and of recent years a considerable number of words from English. The Persian and Arabic words, as being the oldest of this stratum, have in particular shared in the general decoloration of unstressed short vowels.

VOWEL SYSTEM

- 12. Primitive Indian possessed the following vowels and diphthongs: $a \bar{a}, i \bar{i}, u \bar{u}, \bar{e}, \bar{o}, ai, au, \gamma, \xi$.
- (a) In the MI stage, in the earliest monuments we have, the simple vowels remained practically unchanged; the diphthongs ai, au and the groups aya, ava became \bar{e} , \bar{o} , which in both cases converged with PI \bar{e} , \bar{o} . Long vowels before consonant groups were shortened.
- l, which appears but rarely in Sanskrit and then only as playing a part in the morphological system of one root, is said to become ili in Prakrit: kilitta-, kilitti-(klpta-, klpti-).² The Ap. katta- represents *kalpta-, not klpta-. No word containing original l survives in Gujarātī.

r showed from the earliest times a variety of development as a, i, or u. Already in the prakritisms of the Rigveda it appears in the three forms, though most

¹ Ind. Ant., xlviii, pp. 191-4.

² Pischel, § 59.

frequently as a.¹ Dr. Bloch, after an examination of the Asoka inscriptions and the literary languages on this point, decides that the predominant development of r was a to the south-west, i and u to the north and east.²

- (b) The only other change of importance that took place in the MI period was due to the early tendency to shorten final long vowels, which in the modern languages (except Sindhi) have disappeared equally with final short vowels. Apabhramsa shows final long vowels becoming short, a process carried further still in Pingala Prakrit.³
- (c) In distinction to the ancestor of Marāṭhī, the language from which Gujarātī descends developed a stress accent which played a considerable part in the further development of the MI vowel system. This accent fell on the penultimate syllable if long, on the antepenult if the penultimate were short, or on the fourth from the end if both the antepenult and the penultimate were short. Its effects are scarcely visible in the Apabhramśa described by Hemacandra, but in OWR (A.D. 1300 onwards) it has produced considerable changes in the vowel system, e.g. apatya- aranyam jāmātṛ- > Ap. avaccaū arannam > OWR bācaū rāna jamāī.
- (d) The next important step in the development of the vowel system was due to the simplification of double consonants. The short vowel in front of the simplified group was lengthened in compensation.
- (e) The disappearance of intervocalic stops in the MI period left a large number of vowels in contact. These maintained for the most part a separate existence till the time of the OWR texts, when the process of coalescence is seen to be beginning, e.g.:

¹ Wackernagel, §§ 9, 16, 19, 146, 172, 208.

² Bloch, § 30.

³ Pischel, § 100.

⁴ See below, § 15.

Skt.	Ap.	OWR
rājā	$rar{a}ar{a}$	$rar{a}$
$pratar{o}lar{\imath}$	$paar{o}lar{\imath}$, $par{o}li$
pibati	$pia\ddot{\imath}$	$\ddot{p}ar{\imath}i$
divasah	$\overset{ ag{diasu}}{d}$	$dar{\imath}sa$
$bar{\imath}jam$	$bar{\imath}a\dot{m}$	$b ar{\imath}$
_	$ghar{o}daaha$	$ghar{o}dar{a}ha$
	annaēru	$anar{e}ru$

aï and aü were, however, still maintained, e.g. Ap. pavisaï karamtaü, OWR païsaï karataü.

(f) In a certain number of words, however, the hiatus appears to have been avoided by the insertion of the sound y, the effect of which is heard to-day: $rajan\bar{\imath}$, vacanam, $nagar\bar{\imath}$; OWR $rayan\bar{\imath}$, vayana, $nayar\bar{\imath}$; G $r\bar{\epsilon}n$, $v\bar{\epsilon}n$, -ner.

Jaina Pkt. MSS. write y (laghuprayatnatarayakāra) in place of older intervocalic stops.\(^1\) But as the great majority of such words in Gujarāt\(^1\) show the simple coalescence of the two vowel sounds, it is probable that those which show y are loanwords either from another dialect which regularly avoided hiatus in this way or from literary Jaina Prakrit. Mar\(^1\)tilde{\text{h}}\(^1\) shows a much greater number of words in which hiatus was avoided, usually with the sound v.\(^2\)

- (g) Finally in modern Gujarātī all final and unaccented short vowels have disappeared; and the remaining vowels in contact have coalesced: $a\ddot{\imath} > \tilde{\epsilon}$, $a\ddot{u} > \tilde{\delta}$. Long vowels resulting from coalescence, when unaccented, are shortened. $\bar{\imath}$, \bar{u} , when unaccented or followed by two consonants, become i, u.
- (h) More recently $\bar{a}\bar{\imath}$, $\bar{a}\bar{u}$ have become ai, au, e.g. $bh\bar{a}\bar{\imath}$ [bhai], $s\bar{a}h\bar{u}$ [sau].
- 13. Thus the Gujarātī system consists of the following vowels: $a \bar{a}$, $i \bar{i}$, $u \bar{u}$, $e \bar{e}$, $o \bar{o}$, $\epsilon \bar{\epsilon}$, $o \bar{o}$, ai, au, oi. Short

¹ Pischel, § 187.

[►] Bloch, §§ 54, 55.

vowels are slightly more open than the corresponding long vowels. a is $[\land]$. Dialectically, particularly in the north, \bar{s} appears for \bar{a} , e for i, o for u.

VOWEL-GRADATION

14. Even in Vedic times the PI representatives of the IE system of vowel-gradation had gained a certain analogical extension.² The MI sound changes considerably altered the appearance of the PI system.

PI series become MI.

The vowel-gradation, however, still remained an active element in the formation of the language, though considerably reduced in the extent of its application. Where it most generally showed itself was in the difference of gradation existing between simple and causative verbs. PI types $a:\bar{a}, u:\bar{o}$ have been maintained to the present day, e.g. sarvā move, intr., pasarvā extend, intr., marvā die: sārvā move, tr., pasārvā extend, tr., mārvā kill; $dujhv\bar{u}$ give milk: $d\bar{v}hv\bar{u}$ milk. The $u:\bar{u}$ series has been disturbed (1) by the lengthening of PI a when followed by two consonants, e.g. $t\bar{a}pv\bar{u}$ be hot (tapyati): tāvvā to heat (tāpayati), phātvā be split (sphatyatē): phādvā split (sphāṭayati), where the correspondence is now felt to be effected, not by change of vowe!, but of consonant; (2) by the extension of the -apaya- causative suffix, e.g. karvā do (karōti): karāvvā cause to do (*kărāpayati, Pkt. kărāvei replacing kārayati), nāsvū be destroyed (nasyati): nasādvā destroy (with a still later causative suffix).

¹ LSI, loc. cit., p. 329.

² Wackernagel, §§ 55, 65.

Nevertheless, the correspondence has remained an active force, a being felt to be the sign of the intransitive verb, \bar{a} of the transitive; and it has resulted in new formations of the type $palv\bar{u}$ be kept, as a passive to $p\bar{a}lv\bar{u}$ keep $(p\bar{a}layati)$ after the analogy of $s\bar{a}rv\bar{u}: sarv\bar{u}$, etc.

Nouns of the type $\delta \bar{e}l$ wash-stone ($\delta il\bar{a}$, $\delta ailya$ -), $m\bar{o}l$ crop ($m\bar{u}la$ -, maulya-), $m\bar{o}t\bar{i}$ pearl ($mukt\bar{a}$, mauktika-), $s\bar{o}\bar{i}$ tailor ($s\bar{u}c\bar{i}$, saucika-), $k\bar{o}dh$ leprosy (Pa. $k\bar{o}tha$ -: kustha-kaustha-), $p\bar{o}th\bar{a}$ book (pustaka-), $m\bar{o}th$ fragrant grass ($must\bar{a}$) rest either on PI originals or were formed on the analogy of others. In the latter case the classical v_fdhi forms would be sanskritized MI words. $\delta \bar{e}l$ and $m\bar{o}l$ (with l, not l) at any rate rest on forms containing -ly-.

The change of r to a, i, or u led to a number of new analogical formations on the types $a : \bar{a}, i : \bar{e}, u : \bar{o}$.

 $a: \bar{a}:$ $bhrta- > bhata- : bh\bar{a}ta- (bh\bar{a}d \text{ a pimp's profits}).$ $vrta- > vata- : v\bar{a}ti- (v\bar{a}d \text{ hedge}).$ $i: \bar{e}:$

 $grha- > Pkt. giha-: g\bar{e}ha-.$

gṛhṇāti > Pkt. gṇhaï : Pkt. geṇhaï (perhaps ghērvù surround, with n replaced by r due to the influence of other forms containing r, e.g. gharan (grahaṇa-)).

**khrt-(: Goth. skildus) > khiṭ-: khēṭa- village (khēḍ agriculture, through contamination with khēt (kṣētra-).

 $u:\bar{o}:$ —

*sphṛt- (Germ. spalten) > sphutyatē (phuṭvũ be split) : sphōṭayati (phōḍvũ split).

ACCENT

15. Normally the stress 1 in Gujarātī falls on the penultimate syllable or on the last if that is long and is

14 For a fuller account of the being and origin of this accent, see Ther, JRAS. April, 1916, §§ 18-43. Cf. also R. G. Bhandarkar, Commemoration Volume, art. Bloch, "A propos de l'accent d'intensité en indo-aryen," p. 359.

derived from a long Skt. syllable (final $\bar{a}, \bar{\imath}, \bar{u}, e, o$ derived from the contraction of two short MI vowels do not bear the acceut, and, indeed, are not full long vowels), e.g. sásro kámal kapár vakhán. In the second case, however, there is a tendency, unless the word is followed by an enclitic like che is, or a postposition, to give even stress, e.g. kápár: kapár che.

This accent is the descendant of the stress accent mentioned above (§ 12. c.), which must have arisen at some period between Vedic times and about A.D. 1300, by which time its effects are clearly visible.

It is liable to analogical displacement.

- (1) In paradigms, whether of nouns or verbs, it remains always on the same syllable, e.g. jīvāmi (after jīvasi jīvati) > ()WR jīvatī, G. jīvā live; ghóṭakānām (after ghóṭakāḥ, etc. > ghoḍaā, G. ghóḍā oblique plural). Similarly in mod. Gujarātī itself, jīveche after jīve, etc.; gen. ghóḍāno after nom. ghóḍo, etc.
- (2) Since the majority of verbs would thus naturally have the accent on the initial syllable, in a certain number of compound verbs with a long middle syllable, the accent has been transferred to the initial syllable, e.g. vinasyati > *vanāse > vánase vánse be destroyed, similarly upajvū be produced (utpadyatē), valagvā stick to (vilagyati), parakhvū examine (parīkṣatē), Jļakhvū recognize (apalakṣatē), ōlābvā hang (apalamba-), palatvā return (pallattaï) opposed to aphāļvū scatter (āsphālayati). This change was doubtless furthered by the fact, firstly, that compound verbs of the type 5sarva decrease (apasarati), visarvū forget (vismarati), sābharvū remember (sanismarati), úcarva speak (uccurati), etc., normally had the accent on the preposition; and secondly, that the verbs which show the shift are intransitive (compare on the other hand aphālvā, which is transitive and retains the original accent), and so by the change of \bar{a} to a fall in with the general formative principle of transitive and intransitive verbs.

(3) bálap childhood (bālatva-), kálap blackness (*kālatva-) retain the accent of bāla- kālu-. vánaj trade (vānijya-), if not a tatsama, has been affected by the accent of vániyo trader (vānija-). ánach disgust (anicchā), álakh invisible (alaksya-) have the accent of ánsan fasting (anaśana-), etc., and have also been influenced by the necessity of preserving the initial syllable for the sake of being understood.

At least one of the neighbours of Gujarātī, namely, Marāṭhī, had a different system of accentuation—a stress predominantly on the initial syllable. From some such accentuated language words of the type álto (alakta-), tírchū (tiraśc-), kádcho ladle (HD kaducchuo) must have been borrowed.

In compounds of two nouns the accent of the first has more often been retained, e.g. Ráthod OWR rāthaüda (rāṣṭrakūṭa-), Sthot OWR sīhaüta (siṁhaputra-), Phálodhī OWR phalavadhī (phalavardhikā), désoṭo OWR desavaṭaü (dēśa-vṛtta-).

SPONTANEOUS NASALIZATION

16. There seems from the earliest time to have been a tendency to pronounce vowels with the velum incompletely raised, which results in the vowel becoming nasalized. In the Asoka inscriptions the variant spelling long vowel or short vowel with anusvāra may be taken to represent this tendency. In the Prakrits there are many examples, particularly of anusvāra + stop representing the assimilation of consonant groups and usually of groups containing r + consonant.

In Gujarātī this tendency to nasalization, though present, is less in evidence than in other MI languages. Generally speaking, only those words have this spontaneous nasalization which are so found in other languages and are attested in Prakrit, while, on the other hand, a considerable number of words are without the

nasalization in Gujarātī which have it in some or all the other languages.

Thus with nasalization: mājār cat (mārjāra-, Pkt. mamjāra-), vākū bent (vakra-, Pkt. vamka-), ākh eye (akṣi-), pākh wing (pakṣa-, Pkt. pamkha-), āsu tear (aśru-, Pkt. amsu-), ūcū high (ucca-), ūt camel (uṣṭra-), chāḍvū abandon (chardayati). The last is nasalized only in Marāṭhī and Gujarātī.

Without nasalization: $m\bar{a}gv\bar{u}$ ask for $(m\bar{a}rgati)$, $m\bar{a}jv\bar{u}$ clean $(m\bar{a}rjati)$, $s\bar{a}p$ snake (sarpa-), $k\bar{a}kd\bar{u}$ cucumber $(karkatik\bar{a})$, $s\bar{a}c\bar{u}$ true (satya-), $\bar{o}th$ lip $(\bar{o}stha-)$, $\bar{u}bh\bar{u}$ upright $(\bar{u}rdhva-)$.

Similarly the spontaneous nasalization of simple long vowels is found less frequently in Gujarātī, e.g. $bh\bar{\epsilon}s$ buffalo cow $(mahis\bar{\iota})$, $b\bar{a}hy\bar{a}$ arm $(b\bar{a}hu$ -). The question, primarily in regard to Marāṭhī, is discussed at length by Dr. Bloch.¹

VOWELS IN ACCENTED SYLLABLES

17. In open syllables, except for PI ai, au, γ , all vowels remain unchanged. ai, au became \bar{e} , \bar{o} , which converged with PI \bar{e} , \bar{o} .

a

khan moment (kṣaṇa-), gaļū throat (gala-), kamaļ lotus (kamala-),karvā do (karōti),sasro father-in-law (śvaśura-), dahī curds (dadhi-), sahiyar female friend (sakhī), jaļvā burn, intr. (jvalati), jaṇvā bear young (janayati), saso hare (śaśa-).

In the OWR words in which Dr. Tessitori² gives i or u from a, Gujarātī shows a. Most of the OWR examples of this change can be explained by special conditions. tijaï, dhina, kṣitri are tatsamas (tyaj-, dhanya-, kṣatriya-); khiṇa is probably due to the influence of *kṣiṇa ts. from kṣaṇa-; giu < gaïu, perhaps due to quick pronunciation

¹ Bloch, § 66 ff.

² Ind. Ant., xliii, p. 55.

(cf. H. $[gia] = gay\bar{a}$); jiniu < janiu, due to the following i. Only for $inda\ddot{u}$ (anda-) and $gina\ddot{i}$ (ganayati) does there seem to be no explanation. The vocalization of $gina\ddot{i}$, however, appears also in H. $ginn\bar{a}$ (beside G. ganva, N. gannu); and Dr. Tessitori remarks that Marwārī retains this OWR i < a. The occurrence of i beside a may then be due to dialect mixture. Similarly u < a in the presence of a labial. Gujarātī uniformly shows a.

ā

mājār (mārjāra-), nām name (nāman-), jāṇvā know (jānāti), nās loss (nāśa-), vakhān praise (vyākhyāna-), bhāī (bhrātī-), tāvvā (tāpayati), vāļā sand (vālukā), pasāī riches (prasāda-).

In a few verbs we have Gujarātī a for \bar{a} (= Skt. \bar{a} , or a before consonant group) in the accented syllable. These are mostly transitive verbs, and have been reformed with a for \bar{a} after the type $sarv\bar{a}$ (sarati): $s\bar{a}rv\bar{a}$ ($s\bar{a}rayati$); e.g. $dhakhv\bar{a}$ be angry ($dhak\bar{s}ati$), $dhasv\bar{a}$ push through, intr. ($dhar\bar{s}ati$), $ghasv\bar{a}$ rub against ($ghar\bar{s}ati$) has perhaps been influenced by the passive $ghas\bar{a}v\bar{a}$: This replacement of \bar{a} by a in intransitive verbs is very common in Marāṭhī.

Dr. Tessitori ² quotes OWR words as showing $a < \bar{a}$: $bimaṇa\bar{u}$ (*dvi- $m\bar{a}naka$ -), $v\bar{\imath}nava\bar{\imath}$ ($vij\bar{\imath}\bar{a}payati$), sa $\bar{\imath}$ (śatāni); $bimaṇa\bar{u}$ as the name of a measure is suspect of borrowing; $v\bar{\imath}nava\bar{\imath}$ represents Skt. $vij\bar{\imath}apayati$, and sa $\bar{\imath}$ for sa $\bar{a}\bar{\imath}$ is due to sing. sa \bar{u} (śatam).

i

śir head (śiras-), chinvā slit (chinatti), vinvā select (vinayati), cir for long (cira-), cinvā fold (cinōti), tilo caste-mark (tilaka-), vimal clean (vimala-), vin without (vinā), pisvā grind (pinaṣṭi, pimṣati).

² Ind. Ant., xliii, p. 5.

¹ Turner, JRAS., April, 1916, p. 238.

lakhvā for ts. *likhvā (likhati) is perhaps due to the influence of forms where the first syllable is unaccented: lakhāvvā.

ī

' $b\bar{\imath}$ seed ($b\bar{\imath}ja$ -), $h\bar{\imath}n$ wicked ($h\bar{\imath}na$ -), $s\bar{\imath}l$ nature ($s\bar{\imath}la$ -), $kh\bar{\imath}r$ rice boiled in milk ($ks\bar{\imath}ra$ -), $d\bar{\imath}ro$ lamp ($d\bar{\imath}pa$ -), $k\bar{\imath}do$ insect ($k\bar{\imath}la$ -), ahir herdsman ($abh\bar{\imath}ra$ -), $n\bar{\imath}l\bar{\imath}a$ blue ($n\bar{\imath}la$ -), $p\bar{\imath}dv\bar{\imath}a$ hurt ($p\bar{\imath}dayati$), $j\bar{\imath}r\bar{\imath}a$ cummin-seed ($j\bar{\imath}ra$ -), $s\bar{\imath}m$ boundary ($s\bar{\imath}m\bar{a}$).

u

kul family (kula-), dhunvā shake, intr. (dhunōti), ur breast (uras-), khur hoof (khura-), muslā pestle (musala-), pudī bundle (puṭikā), suvvā sleep (*supati, Pkt. suvaï).

ū

 $dh\bar{u}l$ dust $(dh\bar{u}li-)$, $m\bar{u}l$ root $(m\bar{u}la-)$, $j\bar{u}$ louse $(y\bar{u}k\bar{a})$, $\bar{u}n\bar{u}$ not quite full $(\bar{u}na-)$, $\bar{u}s$ salt $(\bar{u}sa-)$, $kap\bar{u}r$ camphor $(karp\bar{u}ra-)$, $maj\bar{u}s$ box $(majj\bar{u}s\bar{a})$, $s\bar{u}r\bar{u}$ brave $(s\bar{u}ra-)$, $r\bar{u}d\bar{u}$ proper $(r\bar{u}pa-)$, $j\bar{u}v\bar{u}$ gambling $(dy\bar{u}ta-)$.

ō.

- = PI ē: mēh rain (mēgha-), nēh love (snēha-), mēļvā mix (mēlayati), tēņe by him, OWR teņaī (tēna), chēdo end (chēda-), dēś country (dēśa-), bhēv secret (bhēda-).
- = PI ai: gēru red chalk (gairika-), kēśuļā saffron flowers (kainiśuka-).
- $\bar{\imath}$ $i < \bar{e}$ in $ph\bar{\imath}n$ foam, beside $ph\bar{e}n$ ($ph\bar{e}na$ -), dier husband's younger brother ($d\bar{e}vara$ -), is unexplained.

ā

- = PI \bar{o} : $beļv\bar{a}$ sink $(b\bar{o}layati)$, $r\bar{o}n\bar{a}$ weep $(r\bar{o}dati)$, $s\bar{o}s$ thirst $(s\bar{o}sa)$, $d\bar{o}hv\bar{a}$ (dohayati), $gh\bar{o}$ iguana $(g\bar{o}dh\bar{a})$, $l\bar{o}h\bar{\iota}$ blood $(l\bar{o}hita)$, $g\bar{o}ras$ whey, $g\bar{o}rs\bar{\imath}$ pot to contain whey $(g\bar{o}rasa)$, $m\bar{o}hv\bar{a}$ enchant $(m\bar{o}hayati)$, $k\bar{o}s$ $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles $(kr\bar{o}sa)$, $g\bar{o}l$ round $(g\bar{o}la)$, $gh\bar{o}do$ horse $(gh\bar{o}taka)$, $ch\bar{o}dv\bar{a}$ let go $(ch\bar{o}tayati)$, $th\bar{o}d\bar{a}$ $(st\bar{o}ka)$, $d\bar{o}r$ rope $(d\bar{o}raka)$.
 - = PI au: gōrū fair (gaura-), dhōvū wash (dhauti),

 $k\bar{o}l\bar{i}$ Šūdra caste (kaulika-), $p\bar{o}l\bar{i}$ wheaten cake (pauli-), $c\bar{o}r$ thief (caura-), $\bar{o}sad$ drug (auṣadha-). Cf. also the words given in § 14.

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18. The development of the PI vowel r is confused from the time of our earliest documents.1 In Middle Indian it appears as a, i, or u. According to Dr. Bloch the repartition was probably this: in the south-west r > a: in the north and north-east r > i, or u in the presence of a labial. Since the earliest times, however, there has been constant mutual borrowing, and all the modern languages present examples of all three developments in their vocabulary. But in maintaining that Gujarātī belongs in this respect to the south-west group Dr. Bloch is perhaps wrong. The language of the Asoka inscriptions at Girnar, which show the a treatment predominating,2 cannot be held to support his view, for, as shown above (§ 4), it probably does not represent the ancestor of Gujarātī.

On the contrary, the predominant treatment in Gujarātī (as undoubtedly in Śaurasēnī Prakrit) is $r > i, u, \text{ e.g. } v\bar{\imath}ch\bar{\imath}$ scorpion ($vr\acute{s}cika$ -): the N.W. dialects, from which presumably M. $v\bar{\imath}c\bar{\imath}u$ is borrowed, show -u in the termination corresponding to Pkt. vimchua-, which points to the Gujarātī word not being borrowed at least from a N.W. dialect; $k\bar{\imath}dh\bar{\imath}u$ done (krta-) with -dh- after $l\bar{\imath}udh$ - (labdha-) etc., $mah\bar{\imath}r\bar{\imath}u$ mother's house (* $m\bar{\imath}trgarhukam > m\bar{\imath}uharu\bar{\imath}u$) not found in the N.W. dialects; $d\bar{\imath}th\bar{\imath}u$ seen ($dr\dot{\imath}ta$ -); $vuthv\bar{\imath}u$ to rain ($vr\dot{\imath}ta$ -); $haiy\bar{\imath}u$, $haid\bar{\imath}u$ memory, OWR $ha\bar{\imath}du\bar{\imath}u$ (hrdaya-) represents, older haia-du- by metathesis of a and a in Ap. hiaa-.

Several words which show the a treatment are used in a special sense, while the cognates with i, u retain their more general and original meaning. This points to the

¹ Bloch, §§ 13, 31, and literature there quoted.

² Senart, ii, p. 330.

first class rather than the second having been borrowed, e.g. $madd\tilde{u}$ corpse (mrta-), but muo dead ($mudd\tilde{u}$ corpse is the result of contamination); $p\tilde{u}/h\tilde{u}$ tumour on the back (prs/hu-), but $p\tilde{u}/h$ back.

In a number of other words the position of the vowel in an unaccented syllable precludes us from deciding whether the treatment was i or a, e.g. nivadva (vrta-), $d\bar{e}vad$ (vrti-), vade, prep. (vrta-). Lastly, in a number of verbs a may represent not r but ar. This is borne out by the fact that the N.W. languages also show a here, e.g. dhasva (dharsati), but $dh\bar{t}t$ impudent (dhrsta-). In man soft (mrdu-), $p\bar{b}hl\bar{a}$ broad (prthula-) there is common Indian dissimilation of u between two labials to u.

Initially r appears as ri. a, i, u < r converge with PI a, i, u.

ri-: $rijhv\bar{v}$ be pleased (rdhyati), $p\bar{a}rdh\bar{i}$ hunter $(*p\bar{a}pa\text{-}riddhi\text{-}: p\bar{a}pa\text{-}rddhi\text{-})$, loan word rich bear (rh*a-).

i : vichī (vṛścika-), dīṭhā (dṛṣṭa-), diśvā appear (dṛṣṇatē), mahīrā (*mātṛgarhakam), śiyāṭ jackal (śṛgāla-), bhīgāro wasp (bhṛṇga-), mīṭhā sweet (mṛṣṭa-), śīg horn (śṛṅga-), gīdh vulture (gṛdhra-), haiḍā (hṛdaya-), ghī (ghṛta-).

u: vuṭhvũ (vṛṣṭa-), muo (mṛta-), pūṭh (pṛṣṭha-), bhujvũ roast (bhṛjjati), bhūṭhũ parched (bhṛṣṭa-), gūthvũ plait (grathnāti), ghūṭvũ rub (ghṛṣṭa-), puchvũ ask (pṛcchatı), suṇvũ hear (śṛṇōti), mɔsāṭ mother's house (mūṭṛ-śālā).

 $a: man\ (mrdu-),\ p\bar{b}hl\bar{u}\ (prthula-),\ m\bar{u}t\bar{\iota}$ earth $(mrtti-),\ tankhul\bar{u}$ a straw $(trna-),\ madd\bar{u}\ (mrta-),\ path\bar{u}\ (prstha-).$

VOWELS IN CLOSED SYLLABLES

19. In the MI stage all long vowels before two consonants were shortened. These short vowels converge with the corresponding PI short vowels. Later, in the period preceding the OWR texts, when the double consonant was shortened, or in the case of the group

nasal + consonant when the nasality was produced simultaneously with the vowel, the preceding short vowel, if in the syllable bearing the chief stress, was lengthened.

MI a

< a: kām work (karmaṇ-), āj to-day (adya), sācā (satya-), kān ear (karṇa-), mākhaṇ butter (mrakṣaṇa-), hāth hand (hasta-), vājh barren (vandhyā), rāḍ widow (raṇḍā), sājh evening (sandhyā), cāk wheel (cakra-), vān colour (varṇa-).</p>

 $\langle \bar{a} : r\bar{a}n\bar{i} \text{ queen } (r\bar{a}j\tilde{n}\bar{i}), m\bar{a}gv\tilde{n} \pmod{m\bar{a}rgat\bar{i}}, m\bar{a}jv\tilde{n} \pmod{m\bar{a}rgat\bar{i}}, \bar{a}p \text{ you } (\bar{a}tm\bar{a}).$

 $< r : m\bar{a}t\bar{\iota} \ (mrtti-), \ p\bar{a}th\bar{u} \ (prstha-).$

MIi

- $\langle i: p\bar{\imath}th \text{ flour } (pi\underline{s}ta-), c\bar{\imath}t \text{ kite } (cilla-), s\bar{\imath}kh \text{ advice } (sik\underline{s}\bar{a}), s\bar{\imath}dh\bar{\imath} \text{ upright } (siddha-), s\bar{\imath}k\bar{\imath} \text{ sling } (sikya-), v\bar{\imath}j \text{ lightning } (vidyut-).$
- $\langle \bar{\imath} : \acute{s}i\acute{s} \text{ head } (\acute{s}\bar{\imath}rsa-), \ j\bar{\imath}n\bar{\imath} \text{ thin } (j\bar{\imath}rna-), \ t\bar{\imath}n\bar{\imath} \text{ } t\bar{\imath}kh\bar{\imath} \text{ } \text{sharp } (t\bar{\imath}ksna-).$
- $< r: m\bar{\imath}th\tilde{u}$ (mṛṣṭa-), $d\bar{\imath}th\tilde{u}$ (dṛṣṭa-), $dh\bar{\imath}t$ (dhṛṣṭa-), ś $\tilde{\imath}g$ (śṛṅga-).

MIu

- $< u : \underline{b}\bar{u}dh$ wise (buddha-), $ph\bar{u}l$ flower (phulla-), $d\bar{u}dh$ milk (dugdha-), $s\bar{u}kh\bar{u}$ dry (śuṣka-), $p\bar{u}t$ son (putra-), $s\bar{u}dh$ sense (śuddhi-), $\tilde{u}b\bar{t}$ ear of corn (umbikā), $p\bar{u}n$ charity (puṇya-), $m\bar{u}th\bar{t}$ handful (muṣti-).
- $<\bar{u}:\bar{u}n$ wool $(\bar{u}rna-),\ \bar{u}bh\bar{u}$ $(\bar{u}rdhva-),\ s\bar{u}n\bar{u}$ empty $(s\bar{u}nya-),\ k\bar{u}co$ brush $(k\bar{u}rca-).$
 - $< r: p\bar{u}th$ (pṛṣṭha-), $bh\bar{u}th\bar{u}$ (bhṛṣṭa-).

MIe

- $: \bar{e} : kh\bar{e}t \ (ks\bar{e}tra-), j\bar{e}th \ elder \ (jy\bar{e}stha-), p\bar{e}khv\bar{u} \ see \ (pr\bar{e}ksat\bar{e}), s\bar{e}th \ merchant \ (sr\bar{e}sthin-).$
 - $< ai : \acute{sel} (\acute{sailya}), tel (*tailya : taila).$

MIO

 $\langle \bar{v}: g\bar{o}t$ family $(g\bar{o}tra-)$, $k\bar{o}th\bar{i}$ factory $(k\bar{o}stha-)$, $g\bar{o}tho$ cowper. $(g\bar{o}stha-)$, $j\bar{o}dh$ strong $(y\bar{o}ddhr-)$, $r\bar{o}pv\bar{u}$ plant $(r\bar{o}pyat\bar{i})$, $p\bar{o}khv\bar{u}$ sprinkle the bride $(pr\bar{v}ksat\bar{i})$, $j\bar{o}g$ fit $(y\bar{o}gya-)$, $c\bar{o}kh\bar{u}$ clean $(c\bar{o}ksa-)$.

< au : möti (mauktika-). pōthū (paustaka-).

DEVELOPMENT OF OG. $\tilde{\imath}$, \tilde{u}

20. Stressed $\bar{\imath}$, \bar{u} (from MI $\bar{\imath}$, \bar{u} or i, u before consonant group) are shortened when followed (1) by two Gujarātī consonants, between which a MI short vowel has been dropped; or (2) by two or more unstressed syllables. In the first case the shortening probably occurred before the dropping of the syllable following; but it is impossible to date the change, because the written language does not show whether the syllable has dropped or not, while the language of poetry retains the syllables long after they have been dropped in ordinary speech.

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(1) jivta alive (jīvati), ichvā wish (icchati), cibhḍī (cirbhaṭikā), pipļo ficus (pippala-), diśvā (dṛśyatē), dhikvā (dhikṣatē), pījvā card cotton (piñjā), khijvā be vexed (khidyatē), khildo peg, vijļī lightning, khicḍī rice and pulse, opposed to dīṭhā, mīṭhā, śīdhā, etc., khīj annoyance, khīlo peg, vīj, khīc jowar flour, etc.

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cusvā suck (cūṣati), ujļā bright (ujjvala-), kukḍī hen (kukkuṭī), kuṭṇī whore (kuṭṭinī), puchḍī tail (puccha-), tuṭvā be broken (truṭyati), uḍvā fly (uḍḍayatē), ugvā grow (udgata-), kuṭvā beat (kuṭṭayati), opposed to sūkhā, mūṭhī, ūbhā, sānā, bhūṭhā, dūdh, bhūkh hunger (bubhukṣā), phūl, pūṭh, etc.

(2) upanvā winnow (utpunāti), ughadvā be fine (udghat-), ugmanā east (udgamana-).

In the verbal paradigm the number of dissyllabic forms

with an open syllable is very small. The present tense is rendered trisyllabic by the addition of $ch\bar{u}$, etc. (e.g. $c\bar{u}s\bar{u}ch\bar{u} > cus\bar{u}ch\bar{u}$, etc.), while in all tenses from the past and present participles the first syllable is closed (e.g. custo, cusyo). The tendency is therefore to generalize the short vowel throughout the whole verb, and to preserve the long only in isolated forms like $d\bar{u}th\bar{u}:disv\bar{u}$, $bh\bar{u}th\bar{u}:bhujv\bar{u}$; but even here the short vowel has sometimes triumphed, e.g. $sut\bar{u}$ (supta-) after $suvv\bar{u}$.

Even in dissyllabic words with open $\bar{\imath}$ \bar{u} the vowel is shorter than in corresponding monosyllables; and this shortening is sometimes marked in writing: e.g. cudo or $c\bar{u}do$, $dur\bar{u}$ or $d\bar{u}r\bar{u}$, $jun\bar{u}$ or $j\bar{u}n\bar{u}$, kukar or $k\bar{u}kar$, etc.

In a few words, even where i and u are to be expected, the influence of the long $\bar{\imath}$, \bar{u} of the cognate Sanskrit word has sufficed to generalize the long vowel at least in the literary language, e.g. $d\bar{\imath}pv\bar{u}$, $j\bar{\imath}vv\bar{u}$, $c\bar{\imath}rv\bar{u}$.

The monosyllables $d\bar{u}dh$, $j\bar{u}t$, though often written with u, I have always heard with \bar{u} .

VOWELS WITH THE SECONDARY ACCENT

- 21. When carrying the secondary stress of the word, short vowels remain unaltered, long vowels are shortened, and consonant groups are simplified without compensatory lengthening of the preceding short vowel.
- a: parjāļvā flame (parijvālayati), paraņvā marry (pariņayat), parsēvosweat (*pariņvēda-).
 - $u: ujl\bar{a}\bar{\imath}$ brightness (ujjvala-).
- ā: cakvā ruddy-goose (cakravāka-), pakhvāj side-drum (pakṣa-vādya-), kaṭhiyāro woodcutter (kāṣṭhika-kāra-), agiyārī fire-temple (agni-āgāra-).
 - $\bar{\imath}$: $ki\dot{q}iy\bar{a}r\tilde{\imath}$ ant-hole ($k\bar{\imath}taka$ -).
 - \bar{u} : $kukv\bar{a}$ stammering (*kukka- $v\bar{a}da$ -).
 - ō: kothār granary (kōṣṭhāgāra-).

UNACCENTED VOWELS

22. All M1 short unaccented vowels, unless protected by two following consonants, either become a or disappear altogether. Long vowels preserve their quality, but are shortened.

The weakest positions are: (1) the absolute beginning of the word; (2) between the main and the secondary stress or vice versa. In both of these, short vowels disappear altogether. The next weakest positions are: (1) the initial syllable preceding the main stress; (2) the syllable following the main stress in an originally trisyllabic word. In both these short vowels lose their timbre and long vowels their length.

PREACCENTUAL VOWELS

- 23. (1) Initial a, u are lost.
- a: $r\bar{a}n$ desert (aranya-), $r\bar{\iota}th\bar{\iota}$ soapnut tree (aristha-), $l\bar{u}\bar{\iota}$ firebrand ($al\bar{u}ta$ -), $jh\bar{u}jh\bar{u}$ more, OWR $jh\bar{u}jh\bar{u}\bar{u}$ (*adhyadhyaka-), $jh\bar{u}kh$ glance (adhyaksa-).
- $u: v\bar{a}khro$ furniture (upaskara-), $v\bar{a}y_nu$ marriage-feast ($up\bar{a}yana$ -).

bēsvā sit, bēṭhā having sat, OWR baïsaï, baïṭhaữ (upaviśati. upaviṣṭa-) must be considered loanwords on account of their b- < -v- in face of vākhro.

The preaccentual vowel before two consonants remains in uchāļvā, ughādvā, ugāmvu (ucchālayati, udghātita-, udgāmayati) through the influence of úchaļvā, úghadvā, úcarvā, etc.

- (2) Except when absolutely initial, u, i, u appear as u.
- a: pavādo slander (pravāda-), jaļo leech (jalaukā), kahāņā story (kathānaka-), vahālū beloved s *vabhallaka-(vallabha-), karāļ dreadful (karāla-).
- i: vahāṇā dawn (*vibhāna-, HD vihāṇain), caṇōṭhī berry (HD ciṇōṭhī), vaṇāsvā be destroyed (vinaśyati), vaļagvā (vilagyati), varvā ugly (virāpa-), vasmā uneven (viṣāma- after sāma-?).

 $u: Dav\bar{e}$ (* $duv\bar{e}da$ -), $dhar\bar{a}l$ ($dhur\bar{a}lu$ -), $sahel\bar{u}$ easy (HD $suhell\bar{\imath}$).

 $\bar{u}v < um$ remains: $k\bar{u}v\bar{a}ro$ unmarried ($kum\bar{a}ra$ -).

i and u remain (a) when immediately followed by a MI vowel: $vi\bar{a}v\bar{a}$ bear $(vij\bar{a}yat\bar{e})$; (b) when followed by two consonants, $cit\bar{a}ro$ painter $(citrak\bar{a}ra$ -), $nis\bar{a}so$ sigh $(nih\acute{s}v\bar{a}sa$ -), $dubh\bar{a}vo$ pain $(durbh\bar{a}va$ -), see § 23 (3): $vachodv\bar{a}$ to wean (*vicchotayati) after the analogy of $valagv\bar{a}$, $vanasv\bar{a}$, etc.

In $visarv\bar{u}$ $nivadv\bar{u}$ i represents accented i (vismarati $nirv_{\bar{i}}ta$ -); $vil\bar{u}d\bar{i}$ cat ($vid\bar{u}l\bar{i}$), $kuh\bar{u}do$ axe ($kuth\bar{u}a$ -) are perhaps loanwords.

- (3) Preaccentual Old Gujarātī \bar{a} , $\bar{\imath}$, \bar{u} , \bar{e} , \bar{o} , whatever their origin, are shortened.
- ā: avās abode (āvāsa-), avāī report (āvādā-), ahīr (ābhīra-), camār of the shoemaker caste (carmakāra-), kapūr (karpūra-), naṭhāro wicked (*naṣṭa-kāra-), mājār (mārjāra-), vakhāṇ (vyākhyāna-), kapās cotton (kārpāsa-), pakhāļvū wash (prakṣālayati), paṭhāvvū send (prasthā-payati), janōī sacred thread (yajñōpavīta-).

 $kadh\bar{a}n$ spoilt corn $(k\bar{a}+dh\bar{a}n)$, $kap\bar{u}t$ bad son, $kath\bar{a}m$ privy parts $(k\bar{a}-)$, $lag\bar{a}dv\bar{u}$ set to $(:l\bar{u}gv\bar{u})$, $dhav\bar{a}dv\bar{u}$ cause to run $(:dh\bar{a}vv\bar{u})$, $nhav\bar{a}dv\bar{u}$ wash $(:nh\bar{a}v\bar{u})$, and so in all causatives in $-\bar{a}vv\bar{u}$, $-\bar{a}dv\bar{u}$.

- ī: śiyāļo cold weather (śītakāla-), divēl lamp oil (*dīpatailya-), bhikhārī beggar (bhīkṣā-kara), nisāso (nihśvāsā-), citāro (citrakāra-), pījāro cotton-carder (*piñjā-kara-), śikhāvvū teach (*śikṣāpayati).
- ū: jugār gambling (dyūta-udgāra-), sut(h)ār carpenter (sūtradhāra-), cunāro lime-burner (cūrṇakāra-), dhutāro cheat (dhūrta-), uchāļvū toss up (ucchālayati), ughāḍvū (udghāṭayati), ugāmvū (udgāmayati), ubhā grains of uncooked rice (udbhāta-), dubhāvo (durbhāva-).
- \bar{e} : \hat{seval} moss $(\hat{sevala}-)$, \hat{jethan} husband's elder brother's wife $(:j\bar{e}th)$, $pet\bar{a}ro$ box $(:p\bar{e}t)$, $vehv\bar{a}\bar{\imath}$ bride and bridegroom's fathers in relation to each other $(vaiv\bar{a}hika-)$.

 \bar{o} : $gov\bar{a}l$ herdsman $(g\bar{o}p\bar{a}la-)$, $ghod\bar{a}r$ stable $(gh\bar{o}ta-ag\bar{a}ra-)$, $soh\bar{a}g$ good fortune $(saubh\bar{a}gya-)$.

POSTACCENTUAL VOWELS

24. In the postaccentual position only short vowels can come under consideration, except where, for analogical or other reasons, there has occurred a shift of accent. Excluding the final syllable which will be dealt with separately, there are three postaccentual positions represented by three types \cdot $\dot{}$ $\dot{}$

(1) Type <u></u>∠. <u></u> ⊆.

- a: kamaļ (kamala-), pāthar stone (prastara-), kājaļ lampblack (kajjala-), mājar elump of blossoms (mañjara-), gāgar pot (gargarī), thāvar fixed (sthāvara-), kākan bracelet (kaṅkana-); pākhar armour for elephants (prakṣara-), pāpaḍ a cake (parpaṭa-), jhālar curl (jhallarī).
- i : vēraņ revengeful (vairiņī), haraņ doe (hariņī), māgsar (mārgaśira-), tītar partridge (tittira-), kaņas ear of corn (kaniśa-), parakhvū examine < *párikh-(parīkṣatē), vaņ without = viņ (vinā).¹
- u: mākan bug (matkuna-), phāgan (phālguna-), mānas (mānuṣa-), gūgaļ a gum (gulgulu-), lasan garlic (laśuna-), āgaļ finger's breadth (anguli-), ūdar mouse (undura-), lākaḍ (HD lakkuḍa-).

The change of u to a in pan but (if this is connected with punar) is already found in Pali pana.

(2) Type ∠ ∪ ∴ ⊆.

a: āgļī bolt (argalikā), pācmā fifth (*pañcamaka-), kākḍī (karkaṭikā), āgṇā courtyard (aṅgana-), kābrā spotted (karbara-), jājro carrot (jarjara), dubļa thin

1 For change of accent see above, § 15.

(durbala-), $\tilde{a}jn\bar{i}$ sty in the eye < * $a\tilde{n}janik\bar{a}$ ($a\tilde{n}jana$ -), $musl\bar{a}$ (musala-).

i : gābhṇī pregnant (*garbhiṇikā), gharṇī house-wife (*garhiṇikā), padēs neighbour (prativasa-), kuṭṇī (kuṭṭinī); MI i in tatsamas : pharsū astringent (spariśa- : sparśa-), kārmū strange (HD kārima-), ujāgrū wakeful (HD ujjāgira-).

u: sasro (*śvaśur**a**ka-), āgļī finger (aṅguli-), tādļā rice grains (taṇḍula-), kukḍī (kukkuṭī-), cōgṇā fourfold (caturguṇa-), pāgļā lame (paṅgala-), pāsrā erect (*prāṁśuraka-: prāṁśu-), hīgļā vermilion (hiṅgula-), kaḍcho (HD kaḍucchao).

(3) Type <u>\(\times\)</u> <u>\(\times\)</u> <u>\(\times\)</u>.

a: cakvā kukvā pakhvāj (see § 21).

i: parjāļvā parsēv (see § 21).

FINAL VOWELS

- 25. PI -ah, -ih, -uh appear in MI as $-\bar{v}$, $-\bar{v}$, $-\bar{u}$. Other final vowels remained unchanged. Consonant, however, with the fact that final vowels are relatively shorter than the corresponding vowels of internal syllables, there are three main stages to distinguish in their further development.
- (1) $-\bar{v}$, $-\bar{e}$ became -u, -i; other long vowels $-\bar{a}$, $-\bar{u}$, $-\bar{u}$ were shortened. The shortening of final $-\bar{a}$ is already found in the Asoka inscriptions, e.g. at Girnar $r\bar{a}ja$ tada tatha yatha.¹
- (2) In OWR all final vowels (following a MI consonant) are in process of disappearing. Whether they have disappeared altogether or having lost their timbre have simply become -a, it is impossible for reasons explained above to say.
- (3) In Mod. Gujarātī all final vowels have disappeared, e.g. Skt. hastaḥ, Pkt. hatthō, Ap. hatthu, OWR hāthu hātha, G. hāth.

¹ Senart, ii, p. 329.

In considering the history of final vowels, distinction must be made between those immediately following a MI consonant, as in hattho and those following a MI vowel (owing to the disappearance of a PI consonant), as in Pkt. ghōḍao (ghōṭakaḥ), where the final vowel survived into the OWR period and afterwards coalesced with the preceding vowel, e.g. OWR ghōḍaü, G. ghōḍo. This latter class will be described below in § 26.

Before -m, which became MI -m (? nasalized labial spirant), PI long vowels were shortened in MI, e.g. $jihv\bar{a}m > jibbham$. This shortening was probably a sandhi effect, occurring at first in word groups where, owing to the following word beginning with a consonant, the vowel was followed by two or more consonants. Next the nasal consonant was lost, and the nasality transferred to the vowel, The labial position of -m, however, was reflected in the history of -am. Following a MI consonant -am appeared as -u,1 as in Apabhramáa, and is lost in Gujarāti; after a MI vowel it retained its nasality as $a\bar{u}$ (OWR - $a\bar{u}$, G -a).

- -a: voc. sing. $p\bar{u}t < putra$, etc.
- -i: $\hat{a}kh$ eye < aksi.
- -u: vij < Pa. vijju, Skt. vidyut.
- -ā: khāt bed (khatvā), jībh tongue (jihvā), sān sign (samjňā), vājh (vandhyā), rāḍ (raṇḍā), etc.
- $-\bar{\imath}$: = PI $\bar{\imath}$: dhaman bellows (dhaman $\bar{\imath}$), $c\bar{\imath}$ th 4th day ($caturth\bar{\imath}$), etc.
 - = PI -ih: $\bar{a}g$ fire (agnih), $\tilde{a}c$ blaze (arcih), etc.
 - -ö: hāth < hastaḥ, dất tooth < dantaḥ, etc.
- -am = PI am: acc. sing. masc. $h\bar{a}th < hastam$, etc., $d\bar{u}dh < dugdham$, $k\bar{a}l < kalyam$.
 - = PI $-\bar{a}m$: acc. sing. fem. $j\bar{i}bh < jihv\bar{a}m$, etc.
 - -im: acc. sing., masc. or fem. $\bar{a}g < agnim$, etc.

¹ Pischel, § 351-2.

VOWELS IN CONTACT

26. The disappearance of PI intervocalic stops left a large number of MI vowels in contact. For the most part these maintained a separate existence into the Apabhramáa period, and it is only in OWR that we first see them generally coalescing.

The process of avoiding hiatus by contracting two separate vowels into one syllable depends for its carrying through largely on speech tempo. There was thus a long period during which words were used sometimes in their contracted, sometimes in their uncontracted, forms. condition is shown to some extent in the literary Prakrits, influenced no doubt by the surrounding spoken languages. Pischel gives numerous examples of such contractions.1 In some cases the contraction was undoubtedly early and general. As instances in Gujarātī there are mor peacock (mayūra-); mora- is attested in Pa.; maūra-, which is found in Prakrit beside mora-, mole, moraya-, is That G mor rests on MI mora-, a Sanskritized form. not $ma\bar{u}ra$, is shown by its having \bar{o} , not \bar{o} . In Middle and Modern Indian, -y- is a most unstable element and was the first of the intervocalic consonants to disappear. The close \bar{e} and \bar{o} of $k\bar{e}l$ plaintain ($kadal\bar{i}$), $b\bar{o}r$ jujube-tree (badara-) presuppose their derivation from MI kēlī and bora- which are attested in Prakrit (< *kadilī, *badurō?).

In OWR the following vowels have already coalesced: (1) vowels of a similar nature: $\check{a}+\check{a},\,\check{i}+\check{i},\,\check{u}+\check{u}$: e.g. $unh\bar{a}la\ddot{u} < unh\bar{a}\bar{a}la\ddot{u}$ ($unh\bar{a}la\ddot{u}$), $r\bar{a} < r\bar{u}\bar{a}$ ($r\bar{a}j\bar{a}$). (2) $a+\bar{e}>\bar{e},\,a+\bar{o}>\bar{o}$: e.g. $an\bar{e}ru$ < Ap. $ann\bar{e}ru$ (*anyakārya-), $p\bar{o}li < pa\bar{o}li$ ($prat\bar{o}l\bar{a}$). (3) i+a, $i+u>\bar{i}$, $\check{u}+a>\bar{u}$: e.g. $d\bar{i}v\bar{i}<*d\bar{i}v\bar{i}u$ ($d\bar{i}pik\bar{a}$), $d\bar{i}sa$ (divasa-), $p\bar{i}i< pia\bar{i}u$ (pibati); $am\bar{i}<*ami\bar{u}u$ (amrta-), $jam\bar{u}\bar{i}< j\bar{a}m\bar{a}iu$ ($j\bar{a}m\bar{a}trku$ -); $c\bar{u}u< cua\bar{u}$ (cyuta-), $m\bar{u}u< mua\bar{u}$ (mrta-); $j\bar{u}< j\bar{u}a$ ($y\bar{u}k\bar{u}$), $r\bar{u}da\bar{u}< r\bar{u}ada\bar{u}$ ($r\bar{u}pa$ -).

¹ Pischel, §§ 166-7.

The remaining vowels in contact a+i, a+u are still held apart. In Gujarātī these two coalesce and form $\bar{\epsilon}$ and $\bar{\sigma}$ respectively.

In the accented syllable in Gujarātī the long vowels resulting from crasis maintain their length; in the unaccented (preaccentual and postaccentual) syllables they are shortened, and in the postaccentual syllables they become more close. Mr. N. B. Divatia claims that they are distinguishable in quality from the close vowels, but admits them to be more like the close than the open vowels. I denote them here as e, o.

(1) SIMILAR VOWELS

27. a + a > a : vana (vacana-) chān dung (chagaṇa-), camār (carmakāra-), kābhār potter (kumbhakāra-), siyāļo (sītakāla-), unāļo summer (uṣṇakāla-), phaļār light meal (phalāhāra-), bhādār treasury (bhaṇḍāgāra-), māg representation of a low-caste woman (mātaṅga-), chāvaṇ thatch < *chādapana- (chādayati).

 $\check{u} + \check{u} > \bar{u}: bh\bar{u}kh \text{ hunger} < buhukkh\bar{u} \text{ (bubhukṣā)}; g\bar{u} \\
\text{dung} < *g\bar{u}u \, {}^{r}g\bar{u}ho \text{ (}g\bar{u}tha-\text{)}.$

(2) \bar{o} and \bar{e}

(a) $\bar{e} + a > \bar{e}$: $d\bar{e}har\bar{u}$ temple $< *d\bar{e}vagarhakum$, $n\bar{e}d\bar{u}$ affection $< n\bar{e}hada\bar{u}$ (sn $\bar{e}ha$ -).

 $\bar{e} + u > \bar{e}$: $b\bar{e}hu$ both $< dv\bar{e}$ ubhau. Where -u ($< -\bar{o}$) is final, it becomes -v in Gujarātī, e.g. $bh\bar{e}v < bh\bar{e}\bar{o}$ ($bh\bar{e}da$ -), $parsev < s\bar{e}\bar{o}$ ($sv\bar{e}da$ -), $m\bar{e}vlo$ rain, an extension of $m\bar{e}v < m\bar{e}h\bar{o}$ ($m\bar{e}gha$ -).

 $\bar{o} + a > \bar{v}$: $s\bar{o}n\tilde{u}$ gold $< s\bar{o}unnu$ - (sauvarna-), $jan\bar{v}$ i $(yaj n\bar{o}pav\bar{v}ta-)$.

 $\ddot{o} + \ddot{a} > \ddot{o}$: $v\ddot{o}hro$ trader ($vyavah\bar{a}ra$ -), unless this is a tatsama.

(b) $\bar{o} + \check{t}$: (1) where in Gujarātī i belongs to an interior syllable it is absorbed: $j\bar{o}s\bar{i}$ astronomer $(jy\bar{o}tisin)$.

¹ Ind. Ant., xliv, p. 19.

- (2) Otherwise i forms a diphthong with \bar{o} , which becomes more open: $\bar{o}i$, e.g. $k\bar{v}yal$ $[k\bar{v}il]$ cuckoo $< k\bar{o}ila-(kokila-)$, $s\bar{v}yo < s\bar{o}\bar{v} + o$ (saucika-), $h\bar{v}i < h\bar{o}\bar{v}$ (bhavati), $n\bar{v}i < na$ $h\bar{o}\bar{v}$. (3) Where final $-\bar{v}$ represents $-i\bar{d}$, $-i\bar{u}$ it remains a separate syllable, e.g. $d\bar{o}\bar{v}$, $ch\bar{o}\bar{v}$, $ph\bar{v}\bar{v}$, except in $s\bar{v}y$ (saucika-), which is due to $s\bar{v}yo$.
 - (c) $a + \bar{e} > \bar{e} : an\bar{e}r\tilde{u} < anna\bar{e}r\dot{a}\bar{u}$ (anyakārya-). $a + \bar{o} > \bar{o} : p\bar{o}l$ (prat $\bar{o}l\bar{z}$).

(3)
$$\tilde{t} + a \text{ or } u$$

 $\tilde{t} + a > \tilde{\imath}$: $p\tilde{\imath}l\tilde{\imath}$ ($p\tilde{\imath}tala$ -), $s\tilde{\imath}l\tilde{\imath}$ ($s\tilde{\imath}tala$ -), $v\tilde{\imath}mo$ venture (viyama-), $n\tilde{\imath}m$ rule (niyama-); nom. sing. fem. $-\tilde{\imath} < -ia$, -ia < -ika: $m\tilde{a}kh\tilde{\imath}$ ($maksik\tilde{a}$), $m\tilde{\imath}th\tilde{\imath}$ (musti-), etc.

 $\tilde{t}+u>\tilde{\iota}: pah\tilde{\iota}<^*pahiu, -i\tilde{\upsilon}\ (pathika-),\ dhan\tilde{\iota}$ owner (dhanin-), māch $\tilde{\iota}$ fisherman (matsika-), etc.

piu lover (priya-) is an archaic form.

(4) -iam, -ium

MI final -iam, -ium became $-\bar{\imath}$ with loss of nasalization, due perhaps to the high position of the tongue leading to a corresponding raising of the velum and closure of the nasal passage. On the other hand, MI -aam, OWR -a \bar{u} , being a low vowel, preserves the nasality (see below, § 28).

-iam: amī nectar (amṛtam), mōtī (mauktikam), mahī curds (mathitam), khāī food (khāditam), ghī (ghṛtam).

dahī curds represents not dadhikam but dadhīni, Pkt. dahīni, dahīini, dahīi.

-iu \dot{m} : the suffix $-\bar{\imath}$ of verbs used in combination with $\dot{\imath}ukv\bar{u}$ be able (e.g. $m\bar{u}r\bar{\imath}$ $\dot{\imath}ukeche$) is not the conjunctive participle (< Pkt. -ia), but originally the infinitive (< Pkt. -iu \dot{m} , Skt. -itum).

(5)
$$u + a$$

 $u + a > \bar{u}$: $s\bar{u}do$ parrot $< *suada<math>\ddot{u}$ ($\acute{s}uka$ -); $ukh\bar{a}n$ ($upakhy\bar{a}na$ -), nom. sing. fem. $\bar{u} < -ua$, $-u\bar{a} < -uk\bar{a}$: $vah\bar{u}$ ($vadh\bar{u}$ -), $s\bar{a}s\bar{u}$ ($\acute{s}va\acute{s}r\bar{u}$ -), $val\bar{u}$ ($v\bar{a}luk\bar{a}$).

(6) $\tilde{t} + d$, $ia\ddot{u}$

 $\check{t} + accented \ \acute{a} > iy\bar{a}, \ y\bar{a}$. This must be clearly distinguished from \tilde{t} + unaccented a above; e.g. \dot{siyal} (śrgāla-), śiyālo (śītakāla-), piyās thirst (pipāsā), piyār (priyakāra-).

MI $-i\alpha\ddot{u} > -yo$, past part. $-yo < -i\alpha\ddot{u} < *-it\alpha-k\alpha-$, e.g. māgyo, OWR māgiaü.

a + i or u

28. (1) The earliest contraction in MI occurred where, owing to the early loss of intervocalic y or v in interior syllables, u and i or a and u came into contact.

a + i (on loss of -v- under conditions not yet specified) $> \bar{e}$, Pa. thēra- (sthavira-).

a + u (on loss of -y-): G. $m\bar{o}r$, Pa. $m\bar{o}ra$ - ($may\bar{u}ra$ -).

The history of $k\bar{e}l\bar{i}$ plaintain (Pkt. $k\bar{e}l\bar{i} < ?*kadil\bar{i}$: Skt. kadalī), bordu jujube-tree (Pkt. bora- < ? *badura-: Skt. badara-) is obscure.

- (2) Otherwise MI at, at, due to the loss of intervocalic stops, were maintained separately into the OWR period. They then became the diphthongs ai, au, which have remained in some of the MI languages, but in Gujarātī further developed to $\bar{\epsilon}$, $\bar{\nu}$. Before and after this $\bar{\epsilon}$ Gujarātī s remains unchanged.
- (a) άϊ: pēsvā enter (praviśati), bēhr deaf (badhira-), chē is (Pa. acchati), sē 100 (OWR saī for saī, Ap. saāī, Skt. śatāni under influence of saū, Skt. śatam), bēhn sister (bhaginī), bhēs buffalo-cow (mahiṣī), pēhrvū put on (OWR pahiraï), bēsvā sit (upaviśati).

ai: pethā (pravista-), bethā (upavista-), pehlā first (Ap. pahillaü), ghēlā mad < *gahillaü (grathila-).

 $a\bar{\imath}: gh\bar{\epsilon}r\bar{\imath}$ deep-coloured ($gabh\bar{\imath}ra$ -).

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(b) $d\ddot{u}$: $n\bar{\nu}$ mongoose (nakula-), $p\bar{\nu}$ (prthula-), bollu big (bahula-), lodo (lakuļa-), hon this year (adhunā),

¹ Discussed more fully in Sir Ashutosh Mukerji Jubilee Volumes (Orientalia), art. Turner, "e and o vowels in Gujarati." 24

- $ch\bar{o}$ let be! (Pa. acchatu), $t\bar{o}$ then (tatah), $bh\bar{o}$, m. fear $(bhaya-), v\bar{o}h$ flow $(vaha-), s\bar{o}$ 100 $(sata-); c\bar{o}bo$ $(caturv\bar{e}da-)$ is shown by its b to be a loanword.
- $a\ddot{u}$: $c\bar{v}th$ ($caturth\bar{v}$), $c\bar{v}k$ (catuska-), $com\bar{u}s\bar{u}$ monsoon ($caturm\bar{u}sa$ -), and other words with $c\bar{v}$ -= Skt. catur-, $p\bar{v}n\bar{u}$ $\frac{3}{4}$ ($p\bar{u}da$ - $\bar{u}na$ -), $s\bar{v}ph\bar{u}$ aniseed (satapuspa-).
- (c) Similarly in other words of doubtful etymology G. $\bar{\epsilon}$, $\bar{\rho}$ correspond to other MI languages ai, au, e.g. $kh\bar{\epsilon}cv\bar{u}$ (H. $kha\bar{\iota}cn\bar{a}$), $g\bar{\epsilon}do$ (H. $ga\bar{\imath}r\bar{a}$), $th\bar{\epsilon}l\bar{\imath}$ (H. $thail\bar{\imath}$), $b\bar{\epsilon}l$ (Pkt. bailla-, H. bail), $m\bar{\epsilon}l\bar{u}$ (H. $mail\bar{a}$), etc.
- (d) Loanwords with the diphthongs ai, au appear with $\bar{\epsilon}$, o in Gujarātī, whether (1) tatsamas, e.g. $v\bar{\epsilon}r$ (vaira-), vairagya-), vairagya-), vairagya-), vairagya-), or (2) Arabic, Persian, or English loanwords.¹
- (3) In final postaccentual syllables $\bar{\epsilon}$, \bar{o} are shortened and become more close, being nearer to e, o than to ϵ , o.
- (a) $-a\ddot{\imath}$: ne and (Ap. anna $\ddot{\imath}$: anya-), 3rd sing. pres. -e (-ati), 2nd sing. -e (Ap. -ahi), 3rd plur. -e (Ap. -ahi), inst. sing. -e (Ap. -a $\ddot{\imath}$, Pkt. $a\bar{e}na = -aem$, Skt. -a $k\bar{e}na$), loc. sing. -e (Ap. -ah $\ddot{\imath}$, Skt. -asmin or Pkt. -a \bar{e} , Skt. -ak \bar{e}).
- - $a\ddot{u}$, 3rd sing. imperat. -o (-atu), 2nd plur. pres. -o (Ap. -ahu < *-athah), nom. sing. masc. -o (Ap. - $a\ddot{u}$, Skt. -akah).
- (b) In compounds the accent of the first member was retained. This is shown by the OWR forms where the second member is weakened, a long vowel or consonant being shortened, e.g. $r\bar{a}tha\bar{u}da$ ($r\bar{a}strak\bar{u}ta$ -), $c\bar{u}ta\bar{u}da$ ($citrak\bar{u}ta$ -) $s\bar{u}ta$ (sinhaputra-).

Words of this type appear with o in Gujarātī.

- 29. $\check{t} + G$. \bar{o} or \bar{a} became -iyo -iy \bar{a} : $v\bar{a}niyo$ trader: * $v\bar{a}n\bar{i} < v\bar{a}nijah$; $s\bar{a}thiyo$ auspicious mark: * $s\bar{a}th\bar{i} < svastikah$, $\bar{a}giyo$ glow-worm, $gov\bar{a}liyo$ cowherd, $k\bar{a}liy\bar{a}$ black, $gh\bar{a}siyo$ grass-cutter, etc., $n\bar{\nu}liyo$: * $n\bar{\nu}l\bar{i} < nakulik\bar{a}$ (nakula-).
- $\bar{u} + G$ \bar{o} or \bar{a} became -uvo $uv\bar{a}: kuvo$ well $< *k\bar{u}a\bar{u}$ $(k\bar{u}pa-), jalj\tilde{u}buvo$ a waterplant $: j\tilde{a}b\bar{u}, juvo$ an insect $: j\bar{u}$.

¹ Examples in my article quoted above.

SAMPRASĀRANA

30. (1) The tendency towards samprasāraņa or the absorption of short a by preceding av or ay was at work early in the history of the Indo-aryan languages; and already in Pali Skt. aya ava were represented by \bar{e} , \bar{o} , which, in their subsequent development, converge completely with MI \bar{e} , \bar{o} , whether representing PI \bar{e} , o or ai, au.

PI aya : dēvā give (P. dēti < *dayati : dadāti).

PI ava: hōvā be (bhavati), ōs dew (avaśyā), ośiyālā dependent (avaśin-), ōchā remaining (avacchita-), kōliyā (kavata-).

(2) This principle continued active in the MI period after intervocalic -p-, still maintained in Pali and the Asoka inscriptions, had become -r-, e.g. Pkt. ōsaraï (apasarati) ōāsa- (*apavāsa), ōhattha- (*apahasta-).

MI ava < PI apa : khōvā lose (kṣapaṇa-), ōt ebb (apavṛtti-).

Skt. apā appears in some G. words as 5. In these cases apa ava was reintroduced as a literary loan at a later period, e.g. $\bar{s}sarv\bar{u}$ (apasarati); while under certain conditions, as perhaps when PI apa was followed by two or more consonants, it remained as ava through the MI period, e.g. $k\bar{\nu}d\bar{\iota}$ cowrie (OWR $ku\bar{u}d\bar{\iota}$, Pkt. $kavaddi\bar{a}$, Skt. kaparda, attested in RV kapardin).

- (3) aya and ava of new formation in late MI are also affected by the same principle, but the process begun in OWR, where we have forms like gavakha, $kasavat\bar{\imath}$, $phalavadh\bar{\imath}$, karavata, beside $ga\ddot{\imath}kha$, $kasa\ddot{\imath}t\bar{\imath}$, $phala\ddot{\imath}dh\bar{\imath}$, $kara\ddot{\imath}ta$, has not gone so far, and the resultant sounds at present are $\bar{\imath}$, $\bar{\imath}$, as in the case of MI $a\ddot{\imath}$, $a\ddot{\imath}$. Similarly, in the postaccentual syllable they become e, o.
- (a) Late MI aya (in loanwords from Skt., literary and Jaina Pkt., or some dialect which avoided hiatus between a-a by -y-), ts. nēn (nayana-), rēn (OWR rayani, Skt. rajanī), vēn (OWR vayana, Skt. vacana-).

Late MI ava < Skt. $ava : n\bar{v}m$ 9th day $(navam\bar{v})$ reformed after nav.

- < Skt. avā : gōkh (gavākṣa-).
- < Skt. apa: $\bar{o}sarv\bar{u}$ (apasarati), $\bar{o}galv\bar{u}$ melt (*apagalati), $\bar{o}r$ other (apara-), $n\bar{o}kh\bar{u}$ separate (anyapak\$a-), $k\bar{o}n$ who? (OWR $ka\bar{u}na$, kavana, Skt. kahpunah), $k\bar{o}d\bar{i}$ (kaparda-).
 - < Skt. $ap\bar{a}:\bar{o}r\bar{u}$ on this side $(ap\bar{a}ra-)$.
- < Skt. $am\acute{a}: s\~{o}gh\~{u}$ cheap (samargha-), $s\~{o}pv\~{u}$ give over (samarpayati), $s\~{o}g\~{u}$ disguise ($sam\~{a}nga$ -), $s\~{o}dh\~{a}$ a scent (samagandha-).

 $m\tilde{s}gh\bar{u}$ dear $(mah\bar{a}rgha$ -) after $s\tilde{s}gh\bar{u}$. $j\bar{s}l$ turns (yamala-) is shown to be a loanword by the disappearance of postaccentual -m-.

(b) In the postacentual syllable of compounds (see above, § 28) late MI ava: Phalodhī (OWR phalavadhī <*phala-vardhikā), kasoṭī (OWR kasavaṭī < kaṣa-paṭṭikā), bāroṭ (OWR bāravaṭa-), dēśoṭo (OWR dēsavaṭaü), karoṭ (OWR karavaṭa < kara-paṭṭra-).

EPENTHESIS

31. Beside words with the termination -rya- there existed doublets with -ria-, -riya-. These are found in the Rigveda 1 and in considerable numbers in the Prakrit dialects 2 ; e.g. Pkt. kajja- or kēra- (kārya-), G. kāj and anērā (*anya-kāria-). In Gujarātī -ērā as a suffix has been extended in use: e.g. ghaṇērā plentiful (ghana-), bhalērā kind (: bhalā), vachēro foal (: vācho).

In Surat and Broach ry > ir: e.g. $m\bar{a}ryo > m\bar{a}iro$. In standard Gujarātī there is epenthesis in the group vy: e.g. $\bar{a}vyo > \bar{a}ivyo$.

ANAPTYXIS

32. In a number of words containing -rs- in Sanskrit, an anaptyctic vowel, usually i, has been inserted between r and s in Prakrit. Whether these represent old doublets,

¹ Macdonell, Vedic Grammar, § 48a, 1.

² Pischel, § 134, 176.

³ LSI ix, 2, p. 331.

⁴ Pischel, §§ 131-40.

like Latin extemplo beside extempulo, etc., or are loanwords from literary Sanskrit, cannot be said. The beginnings of the process are, at any rate, seen in the Rigveda: here a svarabhakti vowel is sometimes developed where a consonant is in conjunction with r or a nasal. In any case some of the Pkt. words showing this phenomenon, if tatsamas in origin, must have been borrowed from Sanskrit after the assimilation of -rs- to -ss- and before the disappearance of intervocalic consonants, e.g. $\bar{a}dar\acute{s}a$, Pkt. $\bar{a}arisa$ -, sarṣapa-, Pkt. sarisava-. These appear in Gujarātī as $\bar{a}rso$ mirror, sarsav rape-seed. Similarly amla- appears as Pkt. ambila (<*ambla-), G. $\bar{a}ml\bar{a}$ hog-plum.

UMLAUT

33. A number of words in Gujarātī containing a < Skt. a have variants with $\bar{\epsilon}$ in the accented syllable, e in the unaccented, in place of a. In some cases only the $\bar{\epsilon}$ forms are used; e.g. $gh\bar{\epsilon}r$ at home <*ghari <*garhe.

The majority of these words are nouns, all of which are feminine, and mostly corresponding to Skt. forms in $-\tilde{t}$. It appears that this \tilde{t} , surviving into the OWR period, has affected, at least in some Gujarātī dialect, the quality of the preceding a.

 $k\bar{\epsilon}d$ or kad f. waist (kadi-), $m\bar{\epsilon}s$ f. ink $(mas\bar{\epsilon}i)$, $h\bar{\epsilon}d$ f. fetter (hadi- in Divyavadāna), $kh\bar{\epsilon}l$ f. paste $(:M.\ khal)$, $c\bar{\epsilon}l$ or cal f. itching, $p\bar{\epsilon}r$ f. manner $(:N.\ pari)$, $t\bar{\epsilon}d$ f. bank (tala-), $n\bar{\epsilon}l$ or nal f. tube (nala-), $s\bar{\epsilon}r$ or sar f. string in $m\bar{o}t\bar{t}n\bar{t}$ $s\bar{\epsilon}r$ a string of pearls.

Compare also the pronunciation terikh beside tarikh date.

¹ Macdonell, op. cit., § 21.

(To be continued.)

The Plays of Bhasa

By A. BANERJI-ŚĀSTRĪ, M.A.

TOWARDS the beginning of the fifth century A.D. Kālidāsa made his début with an apology for his temerity in addressing an audience accustomed to such old, wellestablished authors as "Bhāsa and others". After the lapse of fifteen centuries Kālidāsa has held his own, while Bhāsa is practically forgotten. The reason is not the decisive verdict of Time, but the unfortunate loss of his works. But lately came a surprise. In 1912 Gaṇapati Śāstrī discovered and published thirteen dramas in the Trivandrum Sanskrit Series, and claimed them as Bhāsa's. For the past eight years Orientalists have been considering this claim, the general trend of opinion being unfavourable. The present article proposes to supplement the progress already made in the investigation of this question, and to point out the facts practically settled, thus paving the way for further research.

The method followed here is, firstly, to criticize the probability of the various theories advanced as regards the authorship of the Trivandrum group,³ and, secondly, in the light of this criticism to attempt to determine its age and authorship, with special reference to the internal evidence. There are three important theories—

- 1. Gaṇapati's 4: That the author is Bhāsa, and the age about fourth century B.C.
- 2. Lesny's ⁵: That these plays are older than Kālidāsa's (fifth century A.D.), but younger than Aśvaghosa's (c. third century A.D.).

¹ F. Bollensen, Mālavikā und Agnimitra, pp. 3-4.

² Trivandrum Sanskrit Series, vols. xv-xvii, xx-xxii, xxvi, xxxix, xlii.

³ Ibid.

⁴ Introduction to Srapnavåsavadatta, vol. xv, 1912.

⁵ ZDMG. 1918, p. 203 f.

3. Barnett's 1: That the age is the seventh century A.D., and the author is unknown.

We begin with the last as the most improbable. In its support are quoted only two pieces of evidence: (1) the technique of the Trivandrum group is similar to that of a seventh century play called "Mattavilāsa" 2; (2) a supposed reference to a seventh century king called "Rājasinha".3

(1) The technique comprises three parts: the plays open with the stage direction or $n\bar{a}nd\bar{\imath}$, omitting the $n\bar{a}nd\bar{\imath}$ itself (i.e. the verse in praise of the Deity); after the $n\bar{a}nd\bar{\imath}$ the director ($s\bar{u}tradh\bar{a}ra$) enters and recites the introductory verse (praising the Deity); then comes the assistant of the stage-manager ($p\bar{a}rip\bar{a}r\acute{s}vika$) and discusses the play.

Barnett's point is that this peculiar technique is no indication of "a date earlier than that of Kālidāsa" (fifth century A.D.), because "Mattavilūsa (seventh century A.D.) shows exactly the same features of technique".4 Here there is evidently a confusion of two issues. The first issue. viz. whether it is an evidence of antiquity, stands by itself, and need not be obscured by the second issue, viz. how it is retained in a farce of the seventh century A.D. The first issue can be settled in the affirmative by comparing it with the suggestive note of Sten Konow 5 on the stage-management of karpūramanjari, which "has on this point preserved traces of a more ancient stage of development in this branch of literature". There the prologue is divided into three scenes: (i) the director (sūtradhāra) enters and recites the benediction $(n\bar{a}nd\bar{i})$, i.e. a praise of the Deity [then exit]; (ii) the stagemanager (sthāpaka) enters, praises the Deity, and describes the preparations for the play; (iii) the assistant of the

¹ Bulletin of the School of Oriental Studies, London Institution, 1920, pp. 35-8.

² Trivandrum Sanskrit Series, vol. lv.

^{3 1}bid., p. 1, and Bulletin of the School of Oriental Studies, 1920, p. 38.

⁴ Bulletin of the School of Oriental Studies, London Institution, 1920, p. 38.

⁵ Sten Konow & Lanman, Rājaśekhara's Karpūramañjarī, p. 196.

stage-manager (pāripārśvika) enters and discusses the merits of the play. Sten Konow rightly observes that "to judge from some indications in the rhetorical literature, we must suppose that in early times a Sthāpaka, as well as the $S\bar{u}tradh\bar{a}ra$, had something to do with the arrangement of the play". This is abundantly borne out by Bharata's Nātyaśāstra, v, 163-4, and Sāhityadarpana, 283a, b. Besides the sūtradhāra, the existence of another actor, known as the sthāpaka, i.e. introducer, is explicitly recorded by Dhananjaya in his Daśarūpa. 1 But in most of the known plays the sthāpaka has disappeared. Pischel² has suggested that this fact is owing to a reformation by Bhāsa. This reformation took the practical shape of omitting the superfluous. As shown above, in the earliest times there were three different characters with three different functions. The superfluity lay in the first function overlapping the second; the sūtradhāra had to praise a deity (i.e. the $n\bar{a}nd\bar{\imath}$), the $sth\bar{a}paka$ also had to praise a deity, besides introducing the play. This extravagance of piety, however creditable to his predecessor's patience, failed to impress Bhāsa's more fastidious contemporaries. So he suppressed the first praise, i.e. the $n\bar{a}nd\bar{\imath}$, thenceforward uttered in the green-room, if at all, and made the sūtradhāra, thus set free, perform the function of the sthāpaka, viz. to introduce the play as well as praise a deity. The sthāpaka thus disappeared from the scene. This characteristic, a bold reform, served to distinguish Bhāsa from every other dramatist, and is contained in the well-known verse of Bāṇa3-"by his plays with introductions spoken by the Sūtradhāra (Director)" and not by the sthāpaka (stage-manager) as usual This trait of Bhasa exactly tallies with the technique of the Trivandrum group. It clearly proves an early age, and is a point in favour of their identity.

How then does it occur in a seventh century play? The

¹ Haas, Daśarūpa, pp. 79-80.

² Pischel, Gottingische Gelehrte Anzeigen, 1883, p. 1234.

³ Harsacarita, v, 15.

answer is quite obvious. Kālidāsa presumably profited by Bhāsa's experiment and its result. He suppressed the second praise and restored the first praise, i.e. the $n\bar{a}nd\bar{\imath}$ which introduces the play, the sūtradhāra coming on the stage after it. Bhāsa's reform gradually fell into disuse, probably owing to the loss of his works. But his memory still lingered amongst a few in the south-east of India, and Mahendravikramavarman tried in the seventh century A.D. to reinstate his technique in his Mattavilāsa. He was neither the first nor the last to attempt such a thing. About A.D. 900 Rājaśekhara 1 made a similar attempt in his Karpūramañjarī to resuscitate Bharata's technique in its entirety. Pārvatīpariņaya again bears a close resemblance to Karpūramañjarī. It would be absurd to claim from the similarity of their technique only that Bharata and Rājaśekhara were contemporaries; it would be equally absurd to suggest that the author of the Trivandrum group and Mahendravikramavarman were contemporaries on the same ground. It is Fluellen over again: "There is a river in Macedon; and there is also, moreover, a river at Monmouth; . . . and there is salmons in both." But even the salmon are not alike. According to Barnett,2 "the Mattavilāsa shows exactly the same features of technique" as the Trivandrum series. According to Sylvain Lévi,3 "the Trivandrum 'Bhāsa' conforms scrupulously to the classical rules of the Indian Aristotle Bharata." According to MM. Haraprasad Śāstrī, "Bhāsa (of the Trivandrum Series) disregards altogether the rules of dramaturgy laid down in Bharata." All these three strong statements are equally wrong. The fact is that the Trivandrum author was following a Nātyaśāstra similar to but not the same as the current Bharata; perhaps one of those referred to by Pānini 5 as composed by Śilāli or Kṛśāśva prior to Bharata,

¹ Sten Konow & Lanman, Rājaśekhara's Karpūramañjarī, 1901.

² Bulletin of the School of Oriental Studies, London Institution, p. 38.

³ Vāsavadattā, par Albert Baston, Préface, p. iii.

⁴ JBAS. 1912. 5 Pāṇini, 1v, iii, 110, 111.

or perhaps one by himself as suggested by Arthadyotanikā.¹ Whereas Mahendravikramavarman, while imitating Bhāsa, felt himself constrained to follow at least those of the rules of Bharata which in the interval, from after Bhāsa to his own time, had been adopted almost universally. To give a single illustration, rule v, 254 of Bharata² lays down "the mentioning of the poet's name". The Trivandrum author is apparently unaware of it and so ignores it, exactly as Bhāsa would have done. While a seventh century playwright, Mahendravikramavarman, has to obey it. This is a point in itself sufficient to show that they belonged to widely different periods of dramatic development.

Barnett's second piece of evidence is still more liable to criticism. He takes rājasimha as the name of a seventh century king Teramāran Rājasimha I (c. A.D. 675). It is true that seven³ out of the thirteen dramas under discussion contain, in the final verse, the line "may our rājasiniha rule this world ", with slight variations. But there is absolutely no evidence to show that it names a king Rājasimha, and does not simply mean a "lion-like", i.e. great king. On the contrary, there is sufficient evidence to show that the latter is the only proper and possible meaning: firstly, because three of the books 4 do not mention any king whatever; secondly, in three others the simple $r\bar{a}j\bar{a}$ and narapati, which can never mean anything more than "king" in its general connotation, are substituted for rajasiniha in the very same context, with the same words, signifying the same thing. Every Indian court poet is a living illustration of Max Müller's Henotheism; his patron the king naturally appears to him as a lion and the only one. It is impossible to escape from hundreds of such rājasimhas in successive centuries, but to

¹ Sylvain Lévi, Le Théatre Indien, 1890, p. 160.

² Bharata's Nātyaśāstra, Kāvyamālā Series, v, 154.

³ Svapna., Pratijñā., Pañca., Avimā., Bāla., Dūtarā., and Abhiseka.

⁴ Madhyama., Dūtagha., and Cārudatta.

⁵ Karna., Pratimā., and Ūrubhanga.

fancy an identity without positive proof would be a hasty supposition. Thus the seventh century theory ceases to be of any interest in further discussions on the subject.

- 2. Then comes Lesný's 1 theory that (a) the plays are older than Kālidāsa's and (b) younger than Aśvaghoṣa's.
- (a) Even a cursory glance at the Trivandrum Prākṛts bears out the first point. The following characteristics are amply illustrated by the thirteen books: (i) The Trivandrum author (T.) often drops k, g, c, j, t, d, p, b, v, and y between vowels, cf. avimāraa for avimāraka, etc., Kālidāsa and later (K.) as often drop as retain; (ii) T. sometimes changes y into j, but more often retains the y, K. always changes y into j; (iii) T. has dissadi all along except three times disadi, K. always disadi; (iv) T. shortens the vowel and doubles the consonant in evaam, etc., as well as retains the older form, K. never uses the older form; (v) T. uses the three forms ea, eka, and ĕkka, K. only ĕkka; (vi) T. changes ry into yy, the older form according to Hemacandra, K. ry always into jj; (vii) T.2 uses hmi and hn, K. mhi and nh; (viii) T. uses both amhāam and amhānam as the gen. pl. 1st pers. pron., K. only amhānam; (ix) T.3 uses both ahake (only once) and aham as non. 1st pers. pron., K. hake and hagge; (x) T. uses both \sqrt{rh} and \sqrt{rih} or \sqrt{ruh} , i.e. with an epenthetic or without, K. only \sqrt{rih} ; (xi) T.4 has $\bar{a}ma$ meaning "yes" as found in Old Pāli, K. has lost the form altogether; (xii) T. karia meaning krtvā and gacchia meaning gatvā, K. kadua and gadua regularly, while, karia in Nāgarī and S. Indian MSS. is exceptional; (xiii) T. kissa (Saurasenī), kiśśa (Māgadhī), and kisa (once), meaning the ablative kasmāt, K. kīsa (Saurasenī), kīśa (Māgadhī), and kissa (once), similarly T. dissa (Śaurasenī), diśśa (Māgadhī), and disa, K. dīsa (Śaurasenī), dīśa (Māgadhī), and dissa (only in Ardha-Māgadhī and Jaina

¹ ZDMG. 1918, p. 203 f.

² Woolner, Introduction to Prakrit, p. 78.

 $^{^3}$ Sukthankar : $\it JAOS., \, {\rm vol. \, xl, \, pp. \, 248-59}.$

⁴ MM. Haraprasad Śāstrī: JBAS. 1912.

canon); (xiv) T. does not double initial in khu, sometimes changes it into hu as na + khu becomes nahu, K. doubles initial khu after short vowels and e and o, but not after long vowels; (xv) T. has tava and te, the gen. 2nd pers. sing. for all dialects, K. tu(m)ha and tujjha for Saurasenī, while tava is restricted to Māgadhī, Ardha-Māgadhī, and Jaina Mahārāṣṭrī; (xvi) T. has tuvam and sporadically tumam as the nom. 2nd pers. pl., K. has only tumam; (xvii) T.¹ vaam and vayam (both Saurasenī) and amhe (thrice) as the nom. 1st pers. pl., K. only amhe.

In each of the above instances the Trivandrum Prākṛt must be regarded as older for any of the following reasons:—

(a) Vararuci, Mārkandeya, Hemacandra, etc., the oldest known Prākṛt grammarians, mention them as old forms, though instances are not always available; (b) Aśvaghoṣa (second and third centuries A.D.), admittedly prior to Kālidāsa (fifth century A.D.), has the same forms; (c) they are used in ancient inscriptional Prākṛt; (d) they are retained in Old Pāli.

An analysis of the Prākṛt thus leaves no reasonable doubt that the Trivandrum author is earlier than Kālidāsa (fifth century A.D.). And out of the seventeen instances quoted, all, save perhaps four, point to a period of transition when, along with the older forms, the newer were just coming into use.

- (b) The second part of Lesny's theory claims the Trivandrum author as younger than Aśvaghosa (second and third centuries A.D.). Aśvaghosa, it is suggested, stands to him in the same relation as the latter stands to Kālidāsa. The first agrees with the second in using forms altogether lost to the third. Aśvaghosa's forms again are, it is urged, sometimes as much older than the Trivandrum author's as the latter's are to Kālidāsa's. The following are instances in point:
- (i) Aśvaghosa (A.) nowhere changes y into j (cf. Lüders,²

¹ Sukthankar: JAOS., vol. xl, pp. 248-59.

² Lüders, Bruchstücke buddhistischer Dramen, 1911.

1911, s. 48); T. often changes (cf. jadi for yadi), sometimes not (cf. yāhi for yāhi). (ii) A.1 does not drop consonants between vowels (cf. Lüders, ss. 36, 42, 48, 60); T. sometimes drops them (cf. modaa for modaka). (iii) A. changes t into d only once, cf. surada for surata (Lüders, s. 48); T. frequently changes medial t into d, cf. ghodaa for ghotaka, and medial t into d, cf. avajidi for avajiti. (iv) A. does not change n into n (cf. Lüders, s. 48); T. changes na into na, cf. attānam for $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}nam$. (v) A. turns Saurasenī $j\bar{n}$ into $\bar{n}\bar{n}$ (cf. Lüders, s. 49); T. turns $j\tilde{n}$ into $\tilde{n}\tilde{n}$ or strengthens it into nn, cf. viññāna and vinnāna for vijñāna. (vi) A. only simplifies a consonant group (cf. Lüders, ss. 49, 55); T. both simplifies it and lengthens the preceding vowel, cf. śīsa for śirsa. (vii) A. only dissadi (cf. Lüders, s. 55); T. dissadi as well as dīsadi (thrice). (viii) A. retains the older form evám (cf. Lüders, Pischel, Gramm., § 541); T. rarely retains evám, but shortens the vowel and doubles the consonant, cf. devva for daiva. (ix) A. turns ny into $\tilde{n}\tilde{n}$ (cf. Lüders, s. 49); T. changes ny and ny into nn, cf. anna for anya. (x) A. keeps untouched kh, qh, th, dh, ph, and bh (cf. Lüders, ss. 42, 52); T. modifies the consonant, cf. ahimuha for adhimukha. (xi) A. changes ry into yy (cf. Lüders, s. 60); T. the same as Aśvaghosa, cf. kayya for $k\bar{a}rya$. (xii) A. uses $\bar{a}ma$ in the sense of "yes" as in Old Pāli (cf. Lüders, s. 46); T. the same as A.

On the basis of the above evidence, Lesný ² agrees with Winternitz ³ in assigning to the Trivandrum author a date at the beginning of the fourth century A.D. But a closer examination of the list will show that the difference between Aśvaghoṣa and the Trivandrum author is by no means so marked as that between the latter and Kālidāsa. Out of the twelve instances cited, in only two (ix and x) do the two authors differ substantially, just as in two others (xi and xii) they are exactly alike, and altogether different from later dramatists. The rest are cases where Aśvaghoṣa uses only

¹ Lesuý, ZDMG, 1918, p. 203 f.

² Ibid. ³ Festschrift für Ernst Kuhn, s. 301.

one form, the Trivandrum author two—one identical with Aśvaghoṣa's, the other not necessarily similar to Kālidāsa's. The arguments for the fourth century theory are mainly three:
(a) A. uses forms which are neither known to Kālidāsa nor lead up to him as some forms of T. do; (b) A. contains some forms unknown to T.; (c) T. uses two or more forms for the same word, only one being found in A. The first two prove the contrary equally well.

- (a) T. uses forms which are neither known to Kālidāsa nor lead up to him; cf. (i) T.,¹ like A., uses ni as nom. acc. pl. of neut. a-stem (cf. Lüders, s. 59), K.² ni and in; (ii) T. uses attāṇam (cf. Avimā. 21, 28, 70, 77, 82, 83, and Abhire. 15, 21, 28), later attāṇam; (iii) T. has āma, meaning yes, later altogether lost.
- (b) T. contains some forms unknown to A. as well as to later dramatists. Cf. (i) A. uses vayam as the nom. pl. 1st pers. pronoun, K. amhe; T., besides vayam and amhe, uses vaam, which is unknown to either. (ii) A. the hypothetical am[h]āk[am] corresponding to tum[h]āk[am] as the gen. pl. 1st pers. pronoun, K. amham or amhānam; T., besides amhānam, uses amhāam, unknown to either. (iii) The doubtful case of hmi (Old Māgadhī); A. iya mhi, cf. Lüders, SBAW. 1911, s. 410; K. mhi; T. hmi.
- (c) It is true that T. sometimes uses more than one form for the same word, only one of which agrees with Aśvaghoṣa's, but is this an indication of a long interval between the two? Is it enough to place the Trivandrum author subsequent to Aśvaghoṣa? Their striking similarity is admitted, but the points of divergence are emphasized. These latter are essentially problematic. They rest on the assumption that the materials for comparison between Aśvaghoṣa and the Trivandrum author are as sufficient as those for a comparison between the latter and Kālidāsa and his successors. Nothing is further from the truth. The supposed differences might

¹ ZDMG. 1918, p. 205. ² Ibid.; also Pischel, Gramm., 367.

³ ZDMG. 1918, p. 204.
⁴ Sukthankar, JAOS., vol. xl, pp. 48-59.

disappear to a large extent if more facts from Aśvaghosa were available to supplement the very scanty materials at This possibility is strengthened by inscriptional Prākrt. Aśvaghosa lived about second or third century A.D., Aśoka in the third century B.C. The latter's inscriptions sometimes bear out the antiquity of a few of these very forms, which, being unknown to the extant Aśvaghosa, are sought to be relegated to a later period. The following may be singled out: (i) A. never changes y into j (cf. Lüders, s. 48); T. sometimes does, sometimes not; Aśoka sometimes changes y into j, though extremely rarely, cf. ja, javarajaya, and jacavathiya, all three Kālsī forms,1 in Senart's Index to the Aśoka Inscriptions. (ii) A. never changes n into μ (cf. Lüders, s. 48); T. changes na into na (see above); Aśoka sometimes does, though rarely, cf. nihamanam for niyamanam, Kālsī form, Senart's Index. (iii) A. keeps untouched kh, dh, gh, th, ph, and bh (cf. Lüders, ss. 42, 52); T. modifies the consonant (see above); Aśoka sometimes modifies, though rarely, cf. ni(go)hakubhā 2 for nya(gro)dhaguhā (Barābar inscr.) and āhāle for ādhāre (Sārnāth inscr.), cf. Senart's Index.

If even so early as the Aśokan period (third century B.C.) such sporadic instances are available, there is nothing against their being known about Aśvaghoṣa's time or earlier still and preserved in the Trivandrum series. A further consideration, as Lesný 3 points out, lies in Aśvaghoṣa's Prākṛt fitting in with those of Vararuci and Kātyāyana—some of whose forms are later than the Trivandrum author—e.g. ry, $j\tilde{n}$, and nom. acc. pl. of neut. a-stem. Thus, from part of the internal evidence, i.e. a study of the Prākṛts, it is clear that the Trivandrum author was immediately after, if not contemporary with, Aśvaghoṣa (second and third centuries A.D.). This is corroborated by two other points:—

(a) The influence of Aśvaghoṣa is writ large on subsequent writers like Kālidāsa and Bhāravi. He was "the

¹ É. Senart, Les Inscriptions de Piyadasi, vol. ii, Index, p. 570.

² Ibid., p. 580. ³ Lesný, ZDMG. 1918.

Buddhist Ennius, who gave the first inspiration to the Hindu Virgil", as Cowell 1 remarked long before the Trivandrum find. The influence of the Trivandrum author, 2 again, on the same is at least as prominent and certainly more explicit. But with the exception of a single śloka, 3 Buddhacarita, xiii, 60, and $Pratij\bar{n}\bar{a}$, i, 18, Aśvaghosa and the Trivandrum author are mutual strangers. A long interval between the two stands in the way of the latter's independence of the former, who had such a hold over playwrights that succeeded both. The only explanation is close proximity in time, each unknown or of little importance to the other.

(b) The religious spirit of the two authors, while entirely antagonistic, conforms to the known account of the second and third centuries in India. In the north, Kaniska was setting up Mahāyāna Buddhism,4 the result of a "complex interaction of Indian, Zoroastrian, Christian, Gnostic, and Hellenic elements", as a forlorn hope against the rising supremacy of revived Brāhmaņism-first asserted by Pusyamitra, then triumphantly proclaimed by queen-mother Balaśrī in the second century,⁵ and carried on by the Brahmanical Andhras in the south. The violent diatribe 6 against the Brāhmanas in Aśvaghosa's Vajrasūci explains and is explained by the dignified contempt for the Buddhist in Pratijñā, pp. 43-6, and a calm vindication of a Brāhmaņa's superiority in Pañcarātra, i, 25, p. 7. One may well appreciate the brilliant Buddhist's bitterness in having to pronounce his fine denunciations against the Brāhmaņas in the latter's own language or renounce every chance of reaching the mass. But all was over by the end of the third century. Buddhism was not only defeated but discredited. And the poignant Brāhmana - Buddhist controversy which stirs the subtle

¹ E. B. Cowell, The Buddha-karita of Aśvaghosa, 1893, pp. vi-x.

² T. Gaṇapati Śāstrī, Introduction to Svapnavāsavadattā, pp. iii-xi.

³ Sten Konow, Das Indische Drama, 1920, p. 51.

<sup>V. A. Smith, Early History of India, 1908, p. 284.
Bühler, "Inscription at Kārlī, No. 17": ASWI. iv, 109.</sup>

⁶ Édouard Huber, Aśvaghosa's Sūtrūlankāra, Préface, p. vii.

chords in Aśvaghosa and the Trivandrum author, raises no living echo in Kālidāsa and his successors. It would, therefore, seem unreasonable to separate the first two by any long period of interval. On the other hand, every consideration, so far, tends to place them both in the second or third century A.D.

It is easier now to deal with the last theory, of Gaṇapati, that the date of these works is about the fourth century B.C., and that their author is the Bhāsa mentioned by Kālidāsa.

The first part of his theory is disproved by even a partial examination of the internal evidence, i.e. of the Prākṛts, as shown above. The second part raises two questions:

(1) What possible connexion is there between Bhāsa and the Trivandrum group?

(2) Does the traditional account of Bhāsa suit the Trivandrum author?

- (1) It has been demonstrated by Ganapati in his introto the Svapnavāsavadattā, pp. ii-xx, and summarized by Max Lindenau in his Bhāsa-Studien. that the thirteen dramas (and the fragment of a fourteenth) are composed by the same author. One of them is the Svapnavāsavadattā. In one reading, it is Svapnanātaka, in another Vāsavadattā, the full name evidently being Svapnavāsavadattā. Abhinavagupta, the tenth century commentator of Bharata and Ānandavardhana speaks of one Svapnavāsavadattā as the work of Bhāsa. Rājaśekhara (c. A.D. 900) mentions Bhasa as the author of Svapnavāsavadattā, and alludes to its conflagration-motive.2 The Trivandrum Svapnavāsavadattā agrees with this, both as to the name and the characteristic detail. Hence the author is claimed to be the same, viz. Bhāsa. But it is composed by the same author as the twèlve others. Therefore the whole Trivandrum series must be attributed to Bhāsa.
- (2) Can the Trivandrum author be the Bhāsa mentioned by Kālidāsa and others? To ascertain this one has to apply to

¹ Max Lindenau, Bhāsa-Studien, Leipzig, 1918, pp. 7-8.

² Rājaśekhara's Süktimuktāratī.

him the epithets and qualifications traditionally extant about Bhāsa. These are mainly four: (i) "he who gained fame by making the director begin the play; (ii) "friend of fire"; (iii) "the laugh of poetry"; and (iv) "ancient".

- (i) The first has already been discussed above, where it has been shown how the Trivandrum author is the only dramatist now known who exemplifies this reform prior to Kālidāsa. Peterson's ² doubt whether this qualifying epithet marking that peculiar characteristic of Bhāsa which appealed to Bāṇa (seventh century A.D.) has any precise value at all is interesting but gratuitous.
- (ii) Vākpati, in his Gaudavaho ³ (A.D. 700), v. 800, finds pleasure, amongst other poets, in Bhāsa, "the friend of fire" (Jalaṇanitte). The current view ⁴ is extremely superficial. Why should he be called so simply because he introduces a conflagration scene? Harsa ⁵ (seventh century) introduces the same in Ratnāvalī, Act iv. Lévi's ⁶ suggestion that Harṣa borrowed from Bhāsa is a mere assumption. The credit for the conflagration-motive lies neither with Harṣa nor Bhāsa, but with Bṛhatkathā. The episode is taken bodily out of Kathāsaritsāgara, ⁷ chap. xvi. Baston ⁸ and Suali ⁹ are right in emphasizing that "the differences are of little importance", and they do not entitle either to be called a "friend of fire". The real explanation is furnished by the Trivandrum author. He introduces fire—not in any allegorical

¹ Bāna, Harşacarita, v, 15.

² Peterson, Report on Search for MSS., 1882-3, p. 117.

³ S. P. Pandit, Gaudaraho, v, 800.

⁴ The Times Literary Supplement, December 9, 1920, p. 818.

⁵ Ratnāvalī, published by the Committee of Public Instruction, Calcutta, 1832, p. 98; cf. also Vāsaradattā, translated by L. H. Gray, New York, 1913, Introd. 1.

⁶ Sylvain Lévi, Le Théâtre Indien, 1890, p. 158.

⁷ Hermann Brockhaus, Kathāsavilsāgara, Drittes Buch, Taranga, xvi, p. 211, and English translation (C. H. Tawney), vol. i, bk. ni, ch. xvi, p. 109, śl. 14.

⁸ Albert Baston, Vāsaradattā, 1914, p. 17.

⁹ M. Suali, "I drammi di Bhāsa": Giornale della Societa Asiatira Italiana, vol. xxv, p. 111 f.

form, but as the god of fire himself—at every possible opportunity. In twelve¹ out of thirteen dramas there are direct references to Fire. Nay, he not only introduces Fire but often calls him by the very name with which he is associated in the verse quoted, viz. Jalanamitte, i.e. friend of Fire called Jalana (Burner).² There is no other author to whom this epithet could be applied with similar significance.

(iii) Jayadeva, the author of *Prasannarāghava*, places before Kālidāsa, Bhāsa "the laugh (*hāsa*) of poetry". Genuine wit is a rarity in the classical dramas. The *Vidūṣaka's* fondness for food, and comic distortions of words, elsewhere, however admirable in themselves, are no wit, but mere attempts at such and, as Macdonell ³ remarks, "not of a high order." The reason is not far to seek. The *Vidūṣaka* as a renegade Brāhmaṇa, *mahābrāhmaṇa*, is not allowed to be decent even in witticism. The puns, however, are the distortions of natural hilarity forced into a mask of clammy convention. For wit, one has to look back. The Trivandrum author

¹ The only exception Cārudatta.

² Abhi., pp. 70, 71, etc.; Dūtagha., p. 63; Ūrubha., p. 107, etc. Other references to Fire:—I: Pañca. (1) havirdhūmaih., etc., p. 2; (2) tripto'gnih, etc., p. 2; (3) eṣā dīptaika, etc., p. 3; (4) agniragni, etc., p. 3; (5) Śakaţī, etc., p. 3; (6) etāmcakra, etc., p. 3; (7) valmīkamūlāt, etc., p. 4; (8) dahyamānasya, etc., p. 4; (9) Śuskena, etc., p. 4; (10) vanam, etc., p. 4; (11) gato, etc., p. 4; (12) etadagner, etc., p. 4; (13) srugbhānda, etc., p. 5; (14) avanata, etc., p. 5. II: Avimā, (1) istam, etc., p. 5; (2) dagdhāh, etc., p. 60; (3) tavāyam, etc., p. 105. III: Bālaca. (1) vahnir, etc., p. 33; (2) rosena, etc., p. 52; (3) catuhsāgara, etc., p. 52. IV: Svapna. (1) tatastasmin, etc., pp. 11-12. V: Pratijñā. (1) kāṣṭhādagnir, etc., p. 23; (2) agniţ, etc., p. 34; (3) agnim, etc., p. 67. VI: Madhyama. (1) huta, etc., p. 3; (2) rakśasā, etc., p. 7; (3) yathā, etc., p. 25. VII: Ūrubha. (1) prāṇāgni, etc., p. 88; (2) vaira, etc., p. 89; (3) ādīptā, etc., p. 99; (4) vahnitvam, etc., p. 104; (5) jvalantam, etc., p. 167; (6) sadahanā, etc., p. 110. VIII: Abhi. (1) eşa, etc., p. 30; (2) hutāśanam, etc., p. 41; (3) jvalanam, etc., p. 70; (4) jvalanād, etc., p. 71; (5) jvalato, etc., p. 71; (6) ayam, etc., pp. 72-3. IX: (1) jvalano, etc., p. 31. X: (1) vahneh, etc., p. 39; (2) bhīmasya, etc., p. 34. XI: karna. (1) roṣānalo, etc., p. 76. XII: Dūtagha. (1) pañcā, etc., p. 52; (2) prechāgnim, etc., p. 60; (3) aprāpta, etc., p. 63; (4) agnir, etc., p. 65.

³ A. A. Macdonell, Sanskrit Literature, p. 350.

offers a strong relief. As an exponent of humour—both boisterous (cf. $Pratij\bar{n}\bar{a}$, pp. 59–61, Act. iv) and quiet (cf. $Pratim\bar{a}$, p. 13, Act i, Madhyama, p. 22)—he pre-eminently deserves the title of "the laugh of poetry". The first verse, mistakenly quoted by Lévi 1 as an illustration of Bhāsa's wit, is in reality a confirmation of anthological inaccuracy. His definition of $h\bar{a}sa$ or laugh of poetry, as the play of alliteration, is unsatisfactory. An alliteration is more of an artificial grimace ($prah\bar{a}sa$) than a graceful laugh ($h\bar{a}sa$). Lévi's meaning would suit the author of $K\bar{a}dambar\bar{\imath}$ or Jayadeva much better. But if it means delightful wit, any number could be instanced from the Trivandrum series in support of its claim to the title.

(iv) In his introduction to Mālavikā, Kālidāsa speaks of Bhāsa as "ancient" (purāṇa). Kālidāsa lived in the fifth century A.D. The Trivandrum author has been assigned (see above) to the second and third century A.D. It is quite natural for the former to mention a poet of the second or third century A.D. as "ancient". More so, when the latter's success and fame had stood the test of two centuries, amid the exuberance of contemporary and succeeding ventures, which found their consummation in the maturity of Kālidāsa, who represents not the springtime but the ripe autumn of classical glory.

There is only one objection left, Vallabhadeva's Subhāṣitāvalī, 4 Śārṅgadharapaddhati, 5 Hariharāvalī, 6 etc., profess to quote about ten stanzas from Bhāsa. How is it that none of the verses recorded in those anthologies as Bhāsa's occurs in the books under discussion? The difficulty is more apparent than real. Firstly, the anthologies are very far from being accurate; one particular verse is ascribed by

¹ Sylvain Lévi, Le Théâtre Indien, 1890, p. 159.

² Ibid., 1890, p. 159.

³ F. Bollensen, Mālavikā und Agnimitra, pp. 3-4.

⁴ Subhāṣitāvalī, 1286, 1353, 1619, 1628, 1821, 1994.

⁵ Sārngadharapaddhati, 8, 17, quoted by Aufrecht.

⁶ Peterson, Report II, p. 58, and JRAS. 1891, pp. 331-2.

Kavīndravacanasamuccaya 1 to Laksmīdhara, the same being attributed, by two other anthologies, to Bhāsa. there is no surety that the thirteen dramas discovered up till now represent the whole of Bhāsa's works. One instance would be sufficient to prove the point. Buddhacarita is, beyond doubt, composed by Aśvaghosa. Yet, excepting one solitary verse, bk. viii, 13, quoted by Rāyamukuṭa on the Amarakoşa (1, 1, 1, 2) and Ujjvaladatta on the Unādisūtras (1, 156) (none of the two being an anthology)—there is no mention of it anywhere. To make the analogy complete several verses are quoted from Aśvaghosa in the anthology called Subhāṣitāvalī,2 but none of them occurs in the poem preserved. The very same anthology again quotes verses as Bhāsa's which do not occur in the present series. The conclusion is the same in both cases.

Thus the present state of our knowledge places the author of the thirteen dramas definitely before Kālidāsa (fifth century A.D.), and just after or contemporary with Aśvaghoṣa second or third century A.D.), and admits of no serious objection to identifying him with the Bhāsa mentioned by Kālidāsa and his successors.

¹ Thomas, Kavindravacanasamuccaya, p. 163.

² Peterson, Subhāṣitāvalī, pp. 8, 528, 529, 3100, 3142.

A Loan-tablet dated in the Seventh Year of Saracos

By THEOPHILUS G. PINCHES

A S historical inscriptions of this, the last king of Assyria, are wanting, any additional light on his reign, however meagre that light may be, will probably be regarded as welcome, and this must be my excuse for the publication of this interesting but comparatively unimportant inscription.

Like his predecessors, Saracos (Sin-šar-iškun) called himself "the great king, the powerful king, the king of the world, the king of Assyria". He was also "the favourite of Aššur, Enlil, and Ninlil; the beloved of Merodach, and Zēr-panîtum, the choice of the heart's desire of Nebo and Merodach", etc. From the phrasing of this cylinder-inscription, it is clear that he regarded himself as much king of Babylon as of Assyria, and from the fact that the text came from Nineveh, it might be supposed that his sympathies were as much with the one country as with the other-indeed, as neighbouring nations, speaking the same language, this feeling would in no wise be unreasonable. Less than sixty years, however, had passed since the death of the somewhat ruthless Sennacherib, and this was probably too short a time to allow the Babylonians to forget what had happened during the earlier years of his reign and in the time of Aššur-bani-aplithe "great and noble Asnapper", when the latter was in conflict with Samas-sum-ukîn (Saosduchinos), his brother. That they had the right to resist the Assyrian claim to overlordship there is no doubt, and it is therefore certain that the action of the armies of Aššur-bani-apli, king of Assyria, aroused again Babylonian resentment against the dominion of the more northerly power.

There is, then, no doubt that Sin-šar-iškun, the last king of Assyria, made a great mistake in following in Aššur-bani-

âpli's footsteps, and entrusting the leadership of his army, sent to suppress a rebellion in Babylonia, to Nabû-âpla-uṣur (Nabopolassar), instead of placing himself at the head of his troops to suppress the revolt. Ambitious, and probably of deep Babylonian sympathies, Nabopolassar turned his arms against his Assyrian master, and the fall of Assyria, the friendless oppressor and despoiler of nations, followed (607 B.C.). The story of this catastrophe is well known, and we await only the ancient cuneiform records for details and confirmation.

The text which I now translate records a loan of silver, and was drawn up at Erech. It is one of the inscriptions belonging to Mr. W. Harding Smith, and is numbered W. 67. Length 41 mm., height 30.5 mm.

OBVERSE

- 1. Išten manû kaspi ša ^{m.} Bêl-zēri âbli-šu ša . . . -a.
- 2. ina êli U-pa-qu âbil m. . . .
- 3. ul-tu ûmu tišû ša warah A[bi ina êli]
- 4. išten ma-ni-e êšrit šiqli kaspi ša šatti ina muhhi-šu
- 5. irab-bi bît ^m·Âbla-a u bît ^{m.d.}Nabû-šum-ukîn
- 6. mârē pl. ša m.U-pa-qa maš-ka-nu ša m.Bêl-zēri
- 7. ^{Awēlu} ra-šu-u ša-nam-ma a-na
- 8. êli ul i-šal-laț a-di
- 9. Bêl-zēri kaspa-šu i-šal-li-mu.

REVERSE

- 10. Awēlu Mu-kin-nu m. Nadin-a âbil m.d. Nergal-iddina
- 11. m.d.Na-na-a-zalli abil m.d.Nabû-bêl-îli
- 12. m.Abla-a âbil m.d.Bêl-ušallim
- 13. u
 $^{\rm aw\bar{e}lu}$ šangū $^{\rm m.d.}$ Maruduk-bêl-îli
- 14. âbli-šu ša ^{m.d.}Nabû-zēr-iddina Uruk ^{ki} waraḫ Abi
- 15. ûmu tišû šattu sibittu m.d.Sin-šarra-iš-kun
- 16. šâr mật Aš-šur ki ina e-dil bâbi.

Translation—Obverse.

- 1. 1 maneh of silver of Bêl-zērî son of . . .-a
- 2. unto Upaqu son of . . .

- 3. From the 9th day of the month Ab upon
- 4. the 1 maneh 10 shekels of silver for the year upon him
- 5. it increases. The house of Ablaya, and the house of Nabû-šum-ukîn
- 6. sons of Upaqa, (are) the security of Bêl-zērî.
- 7. Another possessor ov-
- 8. er (them) shall not rule until
- 9. Bêl-zērî his silver shall have received.

REVERSE.

- 10. Witness: Nadinaya, son of Nergal-iddina;
- 11. Nanaa-zalli, son of Nabû-bêl-îli;
- 12. Ablaya, son of Bêl-ušallim;
- 13. and the scribe, Merodach-bêl-îli,
- 14. son of Nabû-zēr-iddina. Erech, month Ab,
- 15. day 9th, year 7th, Sin-šar-iškun,
- 16. king of Assyria. By the bolt of the gate.

FREE RENDERING.

1 maneh of silver belonging to Bêl-zērî son of [Ablay]a, due from Upaqu son of . . . From the 9th day of Ab (onwards) it increases unto him (at the rate of) 10 shekels per maneh yearly. The houses of Ablaya and Nabû-šum-ukîn, sons of Upaqu, are the security of Bêl-zērî. Another possessor shall have no right to them until Bêl-zērî shall have received his money.

In line 13 I have transcribed sangu, literally "priest", but *tup-šarru*, "scribe," is also possible, and perhaps the word intended.

As \ \ \ \ \ \ in line 14 stands for "son of", it is possible that \ \ \ \ in lines 1, 2, 10, 11, and 12 stands, as in later documents, for "descendant of", but there is doubt whether any distinction between these two expressions was made so early as 607 B.C.

Though somewhat early, this text is couched in the usual form. Noteworthy points are the high rate of interest, 16% per cent, and the fact that the borrower's two sons are

mentioned as securities—if their father failed to repay the money they would find themselves homeless—that is, unless they possessed more than one house.

In line 5 we have the ideograph χ with the meaning of $rab\hat{u}$, "to increase." This is a rare rendering of the character, and its use here is due to the fact that only two movements of the hand were needed to write it. When spelt out, so as to express the form in full—namely i-rab-bi—seventeen impressed wedges were necessary.

In line 6 the form Upaqa instead of Upaqu (line 2), or, better still, Upaqi, implies either that the case-endings were neglected, and qu and qa were pronounced as q, without any vowel; or else that the final q in line 6 may be due to Aramaic influence.

It is noteworthy that Sin-šar-iškun here bears the title of "king of Assyria" only. The omission of the words "king of Babylon" may be due to the fact that in later days Babylonia was regarded as part of Assyria, and designated by that name. But we have also to take into consideration that the scribe who wrote the tablet may not have wished to acknowledge the overlordship of Assyria.

Ina édil bábi. The contract was probably drawn up near the principal gate of Erech, or the gate where it was customary for men to meet for purposes of trade.

In his short but very noteworthy Ancient History from the Monuments, Assyria (S.P.C.K., 1875 or earlier), G. Smith places "Bel-zakir-iskun" (misprinted -iskum) before Assurebil-ili, the former with six, and the latter with thirteen (or fourteen) years (626-620 B.C. and 620-607 B.C.). These are the old conjectural readings of Sin-šar-iškun and Aššur-êtil-îlāni, son of Aššur-bani-âpli, respectively. We have, of course, to reverse the order, and also, apparently to give Saracos or Sin-šar-iškun an extra year. In any case the present contract proves that he ruled seven years at Babylon, the date of which would correspond roughly with the end of July, 606 B.C.

The identification of the gods of the Babylonian pantheon

is illustrated by the names Nabû-šar-îli and Maruduk-šar-îli, "Nebo is king of the gods" and "Merodach is king of the gods". This accords with the indications of the "monotheistic tablet", on which the chief deities are identified with Merodach, the great head of the pantheon. It would also account for the popularity of the name of Nebo in Merodach's capital, as in many of the other great towns of Babylonia.

HARDING SMITH COLLECTION. W. 67. THE BEY THE HA 多名子到阿里

Bêl-zēri's loan to Upaqu. Dated at Erech in the 7th year of Saracos, king of Assyria.

Note.—The two wedges on the edge of the break at the end of line 3 should be almost horizontal—they apparently form the beginning of the same character as occurs at the end of line 14.

Three Assyrian Roots

By G. R. DRIVER, Magdalen College, Oxford

1. THE ROOT AND MEANING OF KAMTUM

IN the Annals of Ashurbanipal (Rassam Cylinder, col. iv, l. 85) for attaddi ana nakamāti Streck adopts the variant at-ta-ad-di a-na ka-ma-a-ti, which he translates "ich warf sie auf den Maueranger". He apparently follows Delitzsch (Ass. Handw., p. 334, col. ii) and Muss-Arnolt (Lexicon, p. 399) in taking kamatu as the plural of a noun kamātu, outer gate (Jensen, K.B. vi, 496), derived from $kam\hat{u}$, to bind, to surround. Now there is here a variant reading na-ka-ma-a-ti, heaps, which gives the preferable sense "I cast them forth in heaps". It has therefore occurred to the writer that kamati in our text is the plural not of kamatu but of a word kamtum.1 This I take to be derived from a root kâmu, to cover over, to heap up, which is found in some of the cognate languages (Arabic & I, covered; II, heaped up; عَنْ heap; Syriac عُدِعُ concealed). Thus kamatu in this passage would be an alternative, with the same meaning, for nakamáti, which may originally have been a gloss or scribal conjecture for the rare kamtum.2

At the same time Professor Langdon has suggested to me that the derivation of *kamtum* from the root *kamu*, which is not itself found in Assyrian, offers a solution

¹ For the spelling kan-tum (for ka-am-tum = kâmtum) compare martum (for mârtum), K. 257, obv. 21, qiš-tum (for qîštum), V R. 33, col. vii, 1. 4, etc. For the plural ka-ma-a-ti, from a hollow root, na-ra-a-ti (from nâru), IV R. 22, 10/11, may be adduced as a parallel form.

² Professor Langdon thinks that kâmu may have been the original word for "to heap up", and that the verb nakâmu, of which the root does not occur in the cognate languages, is a denominative formed from the noun nakamtu, treasure, heap, which is properly a derivative from kâmu. The spelling nakamtu for nakâmtu would be parallel to na-bartum for nabârtum (see Muss-Arnolt, 639a).

of its occurrence in several places in the omen-texts. In these passages kamtum occurs as some sign on the liver, foreboding disaster; the meaning would then be a "heap" or, as we should say, a "lump" or abnormal growth. The passages are as follows:—

(1) C.T. xx, pl. 41-

line 8.
$$kam-tum kar-tum^{1} \mid da-sa-[tum]$$

= a lump ? | trouble

The meaning then is that a lump on the liver is a prediction of trouble.

line 9. kam-tum tarkat kapṣat²?
= a lump [which] is torn [or]?

The interpretation of a damaged or atrophied lump is unfortunately lost.

line 10. kam-tum hur-ru-ur-tum | kišitti(ti)gáti
= a lump pierced | conquest of the hand

That is, a pierced 3 (or perhaps porous) lump signifies victory. The principle of divination illustrated by this omen is that a defect in an adverse omen means good

The meaning of kartum is unknown; but can it not be taken from a root kâru, TID, signifying "roundness", from which I would derive the Hebrew TD basket-saddle, TID smelting-pot, the Arabic stove; wasps' or bees' nest, so bundle (from the verb so wound round), and the Syriac poon and poon beehive? The Assyrian kârtum, which would therefore mean "round lump", is to be regarded as an explanatory synonym of kâmtum, and the passage should then be rendered: "a lump, a round thing [on the liver signifies] trouble."

The word kapdsu is unknown and no cognate root has been traced. If $kap\cdot sat$ could be regarded as an error for $qap\cdot sat$, its root might be found in the Arabic \ddot{u} grasped; contracted, shrivelled. Then the sense of the passage would be: "a lump [which] is torn or shrivelled [signifies]..." The substitution of k for q is very common in Assyrian texts.

³ It is interesting to notice that Cicero (de Div. ii, 14, § 34) records that a cleft or fissure in the liver was regarded as a sign for which the augurs looked.

fortune. A lump means disaster, whereas a blemish in the lump portends evil to the lump, that is, good fortune for the one who consults the liver.

- line 11. kam-tum ina eli kam-ti | kâmûtu-u-a kâmûtušu-nu ikammû
 - = a lump upon a lump | my prisoners will bind their prisoners.

This seems to indicate a reversal of misfortune and to be another example of the principles explained above.

- (2) C.T. xx, pl. 44, l. 51.
- In a list of signs on the liver there occur the words—
 kam-tum bar-tum
 - = a lump [on the liver signifies] rebellion.
- (3) A. Boissier, Choix de textes relatifs à la divination, p. 124--

šumma ina tarbaşi imni kam-tum nâdat . . .

- = if on the right "court" a lump be found (lit., placed) . . .
- (4) Knudzton, Gebete un den Sonnengott, No. 92, l. 4— [šumma] ina išid séri ubân qablîti kum-tu nâdat . . .
- = [if] at the base of the surface of the middle finger a lump be found (lit., placed), . . .

And No. 72, reverse, l. 6-

šumma ina qaqqad ni-ri kam-tum nddat . . .

- = if on the top of the (?) a lump be found (lit., placed), . . .
- (5) Boissier, Documents Assyriens relatifs aux présages,
 p. 7, l. 26—

šumma eli-nu KAL işu kakku ša-kin-ma eliš innamir kam-tum . . .

= if a weapon be put above the KAL and above a lump appear, . . .

And p. 221, l. 14-

šumma ina ékal ubani šitta uşurati išteniš işrit-ma ina bi-ri-ši-na kam-tum nadat . . . = if on the "palace" of the finger two markings together be marked and a lump be found (lit., placed) between them, . . .

In these passages also "lump" appears to be a suitable meaning for kâmtum.

If this interpretation of kâmtum be accepted, it would appear that the Babylonians looked for any abnormal growth on the liver in the same way as the Roman augurs searched for the presence of a "fissure" (fissum) or the absence of the "head" (caput) of the liver.

2. Note on the Root of Šimėtan

No root is given in the lexicons for the adverb $sim \ell tan$, at dusk. After removing the adverbial termination -an, there remains a feminine noun, $sim \ell tu$, of which the root probably ends in v. It seems possible that the m stands for a w^2 ; the root is then sim v (with), which corresponds exactly with the Arabic sim v first part of the night (see Salmoné, Arab. Dict., p. 382, col. i, s.v. (u), as the Assyrian sim v regularly becomes sim v in Arabic.

Besides šimėtu a variant šimtu occurs (e.g. V R. 39, 26 and 33), on the analogy of birtu, vision (from barû), and zertu, offspring (from zarû). The adverb šimtan is then formed in the same manner as šimėtan.

3. THE MEANING OF SIMKURRU

In the broken obelisk of Tiglath-Pileser I (K.B. i, p. 126; King, Annals of the Kings of Assyria, vol. i, p. 141)

- ¹ A different sense is given to the word by Jastrow, Religion Bahyloniens und Assyriens, vol. ii, p. 312, n. 9.
- ² Compare Ass. namâru, to shine, with Arab. نور) shone, and Heb. الزور) shone, and
- ³ Words from this root are common enough: e.g. Arab. المَا يَعْنَ hour, moment; Syriac مُعَلِيُّ moment, hour; Eth. sā' and sā'at, hour, which is used, for example, in Psalm xc, 4, to translate "a watch in the night".

is a list of animals captured or killed by the king; among them occurs the simkurru, for which the lexicons give no meaning (Del. 503a, "ein Thier des Feldes"; MA. 766a, some wild animal). In default of any other proposal, the writer suggests that "gyrfalcon" is the meaning, comparing it with the Arabic gyrfalcon (Dozy, Suppl. 694b). The interpretation is supported by Sumerian, in which SIM means "bird" and KUR "mountain". What bird would a sporting king like to bring down more than a "mountain-bird" such as the gyrfalcon? The omission of the determinative issuru is difficult, but it can be attributed either to the error of the scribe or to lack of space at the end of the line.

Note on an apparently unique Manuscript History of the Safawi Dynasty of Persia

By EDWARD G. BROWNE (WITH PLATE.)

In my article on "The Persian Manuscripts of the late Sir Albert Houtum-Schindler, K.C.I.E.", published in the JRAS. of October, 1917, pp. 657-94, brief mention was made (on p. 672) of a book entitled Silsilatu'n-Nasab-i-Safawiyya, on the genealogy and history of the Safawis. I can find no notice of another copy, and as the work is of considerable interest and importance, I think that a somewhat fuller account of its scope and contents may be acceptable to students of Persian history.

The volume comprises 88 pp., which, excluding the wide margins, measure 17 × 9 cm. and contain fifteen lines each. the whole work probably consisting of some 20,000 words. It is written in a large and legible, though not very graceful, ta'liq hand, with rubrications in naskh, and is undated. The last date mentioned in the text is A.H. 1059 (A.D. 1649), not 1010/1601, as formerly stated; and the MS. was probably transcribed during the reign of Sháh Sulaymán (A.H. 1077-1105; A.D. 1667-94), for whom, as we learn from the preface (f. 4b), it was composed. It is, indeed, not unlikely that it is the original autograph copy, though there is no colophon to afford proof of this. The author gives his name (f. 4a) as Shaykh Husayn ibn Shaykh Abdál-i-Záhidí, and was a descendant of Shaykh Záhid of Gílán,1 the spiritual director of Shaykh Safiyyu'd-Dín, from whom the Safawí dynasty derives its title. There are five miniature paintings (on

¹ In the Ta'rtkh·i·'Álam-árá-yi-'Abbást (composed in 1025/1616) this Shaykh's personal name is given as Ibráhím. Jámí (Nafaḥát, pp. 242-3) briefly mentions a saint called Ibráhím of Gilán (al-Jílí), but gives no particulars by which he can be identified. Shaykh Záhid, according to our author (f. 68b), died in Rajab, A.H. 700 (March-April, 1301), being then over eighty years of age.

ff. 13a, 19a, 26b, 35b, and 80a) of persons and events described in the text, and these, if of no great artistic merit, are not devoid of a certain spirit and originality.

The work comprises a brief preface, including the doxology and dedication to Shah Sulayman (ff. 3b-5b); fourteen unnumbered sections (fasl) dealing with the ancestors and descendants of Shaykh Safiyyu'd-Dín down to the time of composition; and a conclusion (khátima) in three sections on the relations existing between Safiyyu'd-Dín and his successors on the one hand and Shaykh Záhid of Gílán and his successors (of whom our author is one) on the other. The accounts of the ancestors of Safiyyu'd-Dín on the one hand and of the kings who succeeded to the crown won by Sháh Isma'il on the other are very meagre, and the bulk of the work (ff. 10a-52a) deals with the seven generations beginning with the former (A.D. 1252-1334), who gave to this Royal House its title of Safawi, and ending with the latter (A.D. 1487-1523), who first attained the position and title of King. Both of these, as well as several intervening heads of the family, were poets, and the amount of their poetry (Persian, Turkish, and Gílakí) cited by our author constitutes one of the most noteworthy features of the book.

In this short article I do not propose to discuss the original historical sources of information about the Safawis, but merely to describe briefly one source hitherto, so far as I know, unnoticed and unexplored. To this end I shall give a short analysis of each section of the work, leaving any general observations that I may have to make for the conclusion.

Analysis of Contents

Preface (ff. 3b-5b)

After a brief doxology, consisting of two lines of Arabic and three Persian quatrains, the author, Shaykh IIusayn ibn Shaykh Abdál-i-Záhidí, explains that his object in composing the present work is not to compete with the many able

historians who have written of the Safawis, but to discuss certain spiritual aspects of their lives hitherto unduly neglected. Having dedicated his work to the reigning king Sháh Sulaymán (A.H. 1077-1105; A.D. 1667-94), he gives its title as Silsilatu'n Nasab-i-Safawiyya, or the "Genealogical Tree of the Safawis".

Section I (ff. 5b-9b)

This section treats of Shaykh Safiyyu'd-Dín and his ancestors, his pedigree up to the Imám 'Alí ibn Abí Tálib being given as follows: Shaykh Safivyu'd-Din Abu'l-Fath Isháq ibn Shaykh Amínu'd-Dín Jibrá'íl ibn Qutbu'd-Dín ibn Sálih i ibn Muhammad al-Háfiz ibn 'Awad al-Khawáss ibn Fírúzsháh-i-Zarrín-kuláh ("Gold-cap") ibn Mulammad ibn Sharafsháh ibn Muhammad ibn Hasan ibn Muhammad ibn Ibráhím ibn Ja'far ibn Muhammad ibn Isma'il ibn Muhammad ibn Savvid Ahmad al-A'rábí ibn [Abú Muhammad]² Qásim ibn Abu'l-Qásim Hamza ibn Músá al-Kázim ibn Ja'far as-Sádig ibn Muhammad al-Bágir ibn 'Alí Zaynu'l-'Ábidín ibn al-Husayn ibn 'Alí ibn Abí Tálib. Thus Shaykh Safiyyu'd-Dín was the twenty-fifth in descent from 'Alí, the first Imám of the Shí'a, and the twentieth from Músá Kázim, the seventh Imám, who, as we learn from al-Ya'qúbi's History (ed. Houtsma, vol. ii, p. 500), actually had a son named Hamza. The next ten or twelve links in the chain, including five Muhammads with no other designation,

¹ This pedigree, not worth much so far as the middle links are concerned, occurs in much the same form in most histories which I have consulted. In the useful Turkish version of Munajjum-báshí's Jámi'u'd-Duwal (extending to 1083/1672) made by Ahmad ibn Muhammad Nadím for the Grand Wazir Dámád Ibráhim Páshá in 1132/1720, entitled Sahá'ifu'l Akhbár, and printed at Constantinople in three volumes in 1285/1868-9, the only variants are the transposition of Sálih and Qutbu'd-Din and the insertion between the latter and Muhammad al-Háfiz of Saláhu'd-Dín Rashíd, who, however, on a subsequent page (f. 6b) of our MS, is simply substituted for Salih, so that the same person apparently enters the pedigree in some of its forms under two different names.

² This kunya is added by Munajjim-báshí.

appear to me very uncertain and incapable of verification, and Fírúzsháh-i-Zarrín-kuláh is the first ancestor of Shaykh Safivyu'd-Dín of whom our MS. speaks with any detail. He is said to have been entrusted with the government of Ardabíl, which thenceforth became the headquarters of the Safawis, by a quite indefinite king of Persia only described as one of the sons of Ibráhím Adham, a well-known Súfí saint who flourished in the eighth century of the Christian era. He established himself and finally died, after a wealthy and prosperous life, at Rangín, in Gílán, leaving to succeed him his son 'Awad, who took up his abode in the village of Isfaranján, near Ardabíl. His son and successor, Mulammad Háfiz, is said to have been carried off by the Jinn at the age of seven and educated by them for seven years, when he suddenly reappeared knowing the Qur'an by heart (for which reason he was entitled $H \acute{a} fiz$) and well instructed in religious knowledge. He was succeeded by his son Saláhu'd-Dín Rashíd,1 who lived the life of a farmer at Gilkhwaran, where his son Qutbu'd-Din Abu Baqi followed In his time the Georgians overran the district and killed several thousand Muslims, and Qutbu'd-Dín fled with his family and his little son Amínu'd-Dín Jibrá'íl, then only a month old, to Ardabíl, where he hid them in a cellar. The Georgians invaded the house, but were kept at bay for a time by a gallant youth, who, seeing his death to be inevitable, succeeded in hurling a large earthen jar (kandú) over the entrance to the cellar so that it was concealed from the invaders. Qutbu'd-Dín himself was wounded and left for dead by the Georgians, but was found in the morning by some men who had come to strip the slain, and who showed an unexpected humanity in binding up his wound so that he recovered and was able to rejoin his family. His grandson, the great Shaykh Safiyyu'd-Dín, who was born during his lifetime, used to say, "When Qutbu'd-Din took me on his shoulder, I used to put my four fingers in the sword-wound

¹ Compare n. 1 at the foot of p. 397 supra.

in his neck which the Georgians had inflicted on him." Amínu'd-Dín Jibrá'íl succeeded his father Qutbu'd-Dín, and combined the activities of a successful farmer with the profession of a saintly life, wherein he was guided by Khwája Kamálu'd-Dín 'Arabsháh of Ardabíl. He married a lady named Dawlatí, who, in 650/1252-3, became the mother of Shavkh Safiyyu'd-Dín. At the time of his birth Shams-i-Tabríz had been dead five years, Shaykh Muḥvi'd-Dín ibnu'l-'Arabí twelve years, and Najmu'd-Dín Kubrá thirty-two years. He was 22 years old when Jalálu'd-Dín Rúmí died, 41 years old when Sa'di died, and 5 years old when Húlágú the Mongol conquered Persia. He was the fifth of a family of seven, three brothers (Muhammad, Salálju'd-Dín Rashíd, and Isma'íl) and a sister being older, and two brothers (Ya'qúb and Fakhru'd-Dín Yúsuf) being younger than himself. His father died when he was 6 Amongst eminent mystics and saints conyears old. temporary with him were Amír 'Abdu'lláh Shírází, Shaykh Najíbu'd-Dín Buzghúsh,¹ 'Alá'u'd-Dawla Samnání, Shaykh Malımúd Shabistarí (author of the Gulshan-i-Ráz), and Shaykh Muḥammad Kajaḥí (?) of Tabríz.

Section II (ff. 9b-14a)

This section describes Safivyu'd-Dín's prolonged search for a satisfactory Spiritual Director, and his ultimate discovery of and acceptance by Shaykh Záhid of Gílán. Even as a child Safí was of a serious disposition, not inclined to associate with other children or to take part in their games. He was attentive to his religious duties and used to see the angels like strange birds in the air, or sometimes as men, and to hold converse with and receive encouragement from the "Men of the Unseen" (Rijálu'l-Ghayb). Finding amongst the anchorites (Gúsha-nishinán) of Ardabíl no guide to satisfy him, and hearing the fame of Shaykh Najíbu'd-Dín Buzghúsh of Shíráz, he desired to go thither to visit him, but was for

According to Jámí (Nafaḥút, pp. 546-8) he died in Sha'bán 678 (Dec., 1279).

some time prevented by his mother. His elder brother Muhammad had betaken himself to Fárs, where he had acquired much wealth by commerce, but was finally destroyed by the deadly wind known as the samúm on a journey between Shíráz and Hurmuz. The second brother, Saláhu'd-Dín Rashíd, went to Shíráz to wind up Muhammad's affairs, became mayor (kad-khudá) of that city, and acquired much wealth; and, as his sojourn there was prolonged, Safí finally obtained his mother's sanction to go thither and endeavour to bring him back. On his journey thither he pursued a slow and devious course, halting at Abhar, Qazwin, and every other town where he heard of some eminent saint, only to meet with disappointment. Finally he reached Shíráz, where he met with an honourable reception, only to learn that Shaykh Najíbu'd-Dín Buzghúsh was dead.¹ frequented the society of darwishes and met some seventy notable saints, including Shaykh Ruknu'd-Dín Baydáwí. and was ultimately referred for spiritual guidance to Amír 'Abdu'lláh, who told him that none could solve his difficulties save Shaykh Záhid of Gílán, whose personal appearance and abode (situated on the Caspian shore close to the sea, with the door facing towards the east) he described to him. So Safí bade farewell to his darwish friends at Shiráz, each of whom gave him some present, and, having vainly endeavoured to induce his brother to accompany him, set out for Ardabíl, where Shaykh Záhid had foretold his arrival to his disciples.

Section III (ff. 14a-26a)

This section, which concludes the account of Safivyu'd-* Dín, opens with an account of his protracted search for Shaykh Záhid, which lasted four years. At the end of this time a relative of his named Muhammad Ibráhímán of Gilkhwárán went to a village called Hilya-kirán in the Khánbalí district

¹ Since, as we have seen (p. 399, n. 1, supra), he died in 678/1279, Shaykh Saff, who was born in 650/1252-3, must at this time have been at least 27 years of age, though our MS. (f. 11a, l. 11) describes him as only 20.

of Gílán to buy rice. Now Shaykh Záhid had two wives, one of whom dwelt on the Caspian shore in the house described by Amír 'Abdu'lláh, and the other in this very village of Hilya-kirán, where also the Shaykh happened to be staving. surrounded by a number of his disciples. Ibráhímán was so much attracted by their appearance that he made his vows of repentance to the Shaykh, joined their ranks, and clothed himself in their apparel. While returning home he was overtaken by a violent snowstorm in one of the severest winters ever known in Gílán. His fellow-villagers came out to meet and help him, amongst them Safi, who at once questioned him about his change of raiment, and was informed that it was the garb prescribed for his disciples by Shaykh-i-Záhid. Greatly excited, Saií questioned him as to the Shaykh's appearance, and received a description which exactly tallied with that given him at Shíráz by the Amír 'Abdu'llah. In spite of the severity of the weather he insisted on setting out at once for Gílán, accompanied by a servant named Muhammad Khalilan. His health suffered considerably from the exposure, and from the ceremonial ablutions with half-frozen water which he punctiliously observed. Every night he saw the vision of Shaykh Záhid clad in scarlet and green. It was in the month of Ramadán that he finally reached the Shavkh's village of Hilya-kirán, and, though the Shaykh was not accustomed to receive strangers at this time, he made an exception in Safi's favour, after he had caused the room in which he was performing his devotions to be superheated, thus inducing a profuse perspiration in the neophyte and curing him of the chill which he had contracted on the journey. A detailed account is given of the meeting of the two, of Safi's taking the vows at the Shaykh's hands, and of the honour accorded to him by the latter, who invested him with his own robes, lodged him in his own private apartments, and proclaimed to his other disciples the spiritual greatness of this last recruit to their ranks. Shaykh Záhid was at this time 60 years of age and

Safí 25, and they remained companions for twenty-five years longer, when the Shaykh died. Safí succeeded him as director of the order, which position he held for thirty-five years, finally dying at the same age as his predecessor, namely 85. The date of his death, as we learn from a subsequent page (f. 24a) was Monday, Muharram 12, 735 (September 12, 1334). The names of his four brothers are repeated, and a description of his personal appearance is given, which is followed (ff. 19a-23a) by specimens of his verse-compositions in the Gílán dialect and in Persian. The former (all quatrains) are accompanied by prose paraphrases in Persian, in spite of which they are difficult to follow. Space only allows me to give the first of the dozen as a specimen:—

در بابِ کسرِ نفس و فروتنی می فرماید صفیّم صافیم گنجان نمایم، بدل درده رژرم تن بی دوایم، کس بهستی نبرده ره باویان، از به نیستی چو یاران خالئه پایم، شرح، یعنمی صفیّمکه صاف دلم و دلیل و راه نمایندهٔ طالبانم بگنجهای اسرارِ حق با وجودِ آن همه بدل دردمند و بیچارهام زیراکه هیپ کس بعیب و پندار راه بعالم وحدت نبرده و من از بی تعینی و فروتنی خالئه پای درویشانم،

¹ This would place the meeting in 675/1276-7, when Ramadán fell in February, a fact which affords some corroboration of the account of severe cold.

² They have been already given on p. 399 supra.

³ The use of az for man in certain Persian dialects is very interesting, for it appears to be derived from the Avestan azem, "I", not from the Old Persian adam, manû.

Of his Persian poetry, in which he adopts the takhallus of Safi, four ghazals, one couplet, and the following quatrain testifying to his devotion to 'Alí are given:—

It is worth noting that no Turkish poems are ascribed to him as to his descendant Shah Isma'ıı.

Shaykh Ṣafiyyu'd-Dín had two wives who bore him children, Bíbí Fátima, the daughter of Shaykh Záhid, and the daughter of Akhí Sulaymán of Gilkhwárán. The former was the mother of Muhyi'd-Dín, who predeceased his father in 724/1324; Ṣadru'd-Dín, who succeeded his father; and Abú Sa'íd. The latter bore him two sons, 'Alá'u'd-Dín and Sharafu'd-Dín, and a daughter whom he gave in marriage to Shaykh Shamsu'd-Dín, son of Shaykh Záhid, from which marriage the author's ancestors issued.

At the end of his life Shaykh Safiyyu'd-Din performed the pilgrimage to Mecca, having previously nominated his son Sadru'd-Din as his successor. On his return he took to his bed, and died twelve days later on Monday, Muliarram 12, A.H. 735 (September 12, 1334). His three brothers did not long survive him, so that Sadru'd-Din became sole heir of the family. Here follows an account of the various customs and regulations of the order established by Shaykh Safiyyu'd-Dín, whose reputation for sanctity finally reached so high a degree that disciples flocked to him from all quarters. Mawláná Shamsu'd-Dín Barníqí of Ardabíl related that he estimated the number of these who came to visit him along the road from Marágha and Tabríz only in the course of three months at 13,000, while Sayyid Jamálu'd-Dín, who was responsible for the distribution of food to the poor, mentioned one occasion when a thousand sheep were cooked for this purpose, and another when three thousand loaves of bread

were distributed. On account of this hospitality Shaykh Safí was entitled Khalil-i-'Ajam, the "Persian Abraham". 1

Shaykh Sadru'd-Dín, to whom this section is devoted, was born on the 'Idu'l-Fitr of the year A.H. 704 (April 27, 1305), four years after the death of his grandfather Shaykh Záhid, and died in 794/1392. His father Shaykh Safí died when he was 31 years old, so that he controlled and directed the affairs of the order for fifty-nine years. He built and endowed the great Safawí mosque or shrine

and female, contributed. A short description of his personal appearance is followed by one of his Persian odes, in the last verse of which he gives his name:—

Sadru'd-Dín had three sons, Khwája 'Alí, who succeeded him; Shaykh Shihábu'd-Dín, who died without issue; and Shaykh Jamálu'd-Dín, who left one daughter, Khán-záda Páshá, married to her cousin Shaykh Ibráhím (better known as Shaykh Sháh), the son and successor of Khwája 'Alí. His spiritual acumen was such that sometimes, when the disciples were at prayer, he would separate the shoes of the sincere and godly from those of the lukewarm and the doubting, to the great shame of the latter. His father, Shaykh Safí, not only forbade him to do this, but in order to blunt his spiritual vision ordered that "doubtful" bread from the bazaars should be mingled with his food.

¹ Abraham's hospitality to strangers is celebrated in a well-known anecdote in the Bústún of Sa'dí, quoted in Forbes' Persian Grammar

Amongst his disciples was the celebrated mystical poet Qásimu'l-Anwar, of whom I have spoken at some length in my Persian Literature under Tartar Dominion (pp. 473-486), here entitled Sayyidu'l-'Ushshaq, the "Lord of Lovers". On his arrival at Ardabíl he was recommended to perform an arba'in, chilla, or forty days' ascetic observance, in which he should never allow his head to rest on the ground or abandon the standing position except during the prostrations prescribed in prayer. To secure this end, and to prevent sleep from overtaking him, he fastened a cord attached to the ceiling of his cell to the long lock of hair (kákul) on his head, and only loosened it at prayer-time. Thanks to these austerities he attained a high degree of sanctity and spiritual power, and saw the vision from which he earned his title Qásimu'l-Anwár, the "Apportioner of Lights", wherein he saw himself in the mosque of Ardabíl holding a great candle in his hand, from which he distributed to each of the disciples assembled round him a light proportionate to his merits and capacities. - He subsequently gained many disciples in 'Iráq and Khurásán.1 His verses on the death of Shaykh Safi are quoted and translated in the volume of my Literary History (p. 474) mentioned at the beginning of this paragraph.

Here follows an account of the tyranny and punishment of Malik-i-Ashraf,² king of Persia, "noted for his injustice and wrong-doing," who, conceiving a great hatred for Shaykh Sadru'd-Dín, lured him to Tabríz and confined him for three months in the 'Imárat-i-Rashídiyya, when, in consequence of an alarming dream, he released him, but later again attempted to capture him and compelled him to flee into Gílán. He also persecuted other holy and learned men, one

¹ Jámí, who devotes a long notice to him in the Nafahát (pp. 689-93), casts some doubt on his orthodoxy, and asserts that most of his disciples had discarded the restraints of Islám and entered the circle of communism and contempt for the Holy Law and Tradition. His death is placed in 837/1433-4.

² See d'Ohsson's Hist. des Mongols, vol. iv, pp. 740-1.

of whom,¹ driven to take refuge in the Dasht-i-Qipcháq, preached so eloquently on the sufferings of God's saints in Persia that the ruler of that country, Jání Beg Khán,² deeply moved, determined to invade Persia and punish Malik-i-Ashraf. Entering Ádharbayján by the Bábu'l-Abwáb and Shírwán, he captured the tyrant near Tabríz and put him to death. He then wrote a friendly letter to Shaykh Ṣadru'd-Dín inviting him to come and see him. The meeting took place at Awján, where the Shaykh was most honourably received by Jání Beg, who caused title-deeds to be drawn up conferring on him and his disciples all the estates of which the revenues had formerly been enjoyed by their shrine at Ardabíl, and invoking curses on anyone who should alienate them.

Here follows an account of one of Sadru'd-Dín's miraculous achievements (karámút), of which a coloured illustration occurs on f. 26b of the manuscript. About the year 600/1203-4 the Georgians invaded and plundered Adharbayjan and Ardabíl, and carried off from the latter place the door of the principal mosque, which they placed in one of their churches, regarding it as one of their chief trophies. Sadru'd-Dín determined to recover and restore it, and set off for Georgia with two of his disciples to ask for its surrender. of Georgia said they might take it, but issued stringent orders that no means of transport should be placed at their disposal. Supported by Divine aid, and encouraged by the Shaykh, who walked bare-headed before them uttering ejaculations, the two disciples carried the great, heavy door stage by stage to Ardabíl, where it was still to be seen in our author's time. On this event a poet has said :---

¹ His name, according to d'Ohsson (op. cit., p. 741), was the Qádí Muhyi'd-Dín of Barda'a. See also Sir Henry Howorth's History of the Mongols, part ii, division i, pp. 178-9.

² He was the son of Uzbek Khán, a descendant of Bátú, and reigned from A.D. 1340 to 1357. See S. Lane-Poole's *Mohammadan Dynasties*, p. 230, and d'Ohsson and Howorth, *loc. cit*.

بعـهدِ خسرهِ عادل جـلال الدّين حسن، كه آسمانِ جلالست و آفـتـابِ مُبـيـن، بعونِ حتّى درِ مسجد بكنّد و باز آورد،

پناه وملجاء اسلام شیخ صدر الدّین،

Our author further narrates that when Sadru'd-Dín visited al-Madína the Prophet enjoined the attendants on his shrine in a dream to treat him on his arrival with the utmost respect and to present to him the Prophet's standard, one of their most precious relics. This they did, and the standard was accordingly taken to Ardabíl, where the Shaykh on his return nominated his son Khwája 'Alí as his successor, and shortly afterwards died and was buried beside his father.

Section V (ff. 32a-44b)

Khwája 'Alí succeeded his father Sadru'd-Dín in 794/1392 and continued as head or director of the order until his death on Tuesday, Rajab 18, 830 (May 15, 1427). He is buried at Quds-i-Khalíl (? Jerusalem), where he is known as "Sayyid 'Alí 'Ajam". Many miracles (karámát) are related ot him, one of these being the stopping of the Dizful river as an admonition to the people of that city, whom in a vision the ninth Imám Muhammad Taqí bade him convert from the errors into which they had fallen. As they laughed at his exhortations, he, by God's favour, caused two great rocks between which the river ran to come together and impede the flow of water for eleven days, until the stubborn Dizfulis "believed and accepted the commands of the Holy Law, abjured their infidelity and heresy, and confessed the saintship, vicegerency, and trusteehood ()

of 'Alí ibn Abí Ţálib ".1 وصايت

¹ This is perhaps the earliest sign of strong and decided Shi'a propagandism on the part of the Ṣafawis.

His dealings with Tímúr-i-Lang (Tamerlane), whom he thrice encountered, are next recorded. When Tímúr was crossing the Oxus he accidentally dropped his whip, of which the handle was of crystal set with precious stones, into the water. He was greatly distressed, both on account of the actual loss and because it seemed to him an evil omen. Suddenly Khwája 'Alí (apparently in "astral form"—

restored the whip to Tímúr, who conjured him to say who he was. "My name," he answered, "is Sayyid 'Alí; my abode is in several places; and you will see me again at Dizful and at Ardabíl." So saying he disappeared.

After conquering Khurásán, 'Iráq, and Fárs, Tímúr passed through Shúshtar and reached the bridge of Dizful, where his horse shied. This reminded him of the whip which he had dropped into the Oxus and of the saint's prediction, and he sent for Shams-i-Dihdár, lord of Dizful, and inquired of him whether there dwelt in the city a darwish named Sayyid 'Alí. Shams-i-Dihdár replied in the affirmative, adding that he claimed to be the grandson of Shaykh Safiyyu'd-Din of Ardabíl, and to have accomplished the pilgrimage seven times. Tímúr at once dismounted and ordered Khwája 'Alí to be brought to him. He came with another darwish named Bábá Ruknu'd-Dín Walí, the former holding in his hand two pieces of brick and the latter one, which three pieces of brick they flung to Tímúr, who asked for a fourth. "This is enough," replied Khwája 'Alí; "we have given you three corners of the world, ask no more, for it is not good." Then he continued, "In the land of Syria there are a number of people who boast that they are the children of those who conquered the Prophet's family, and who do not believe in the Prophet. They are called the Yazídí Kurds, and are the friends of Mu'awiya (curses upon him!). Chastise them as they deserve, for we wear black garments in mourning for the Immaculate Imáms. Our next meeting will be at Ardabíl, and the sign between us and thee will be a cup of poison." So saying he departed.

After Tímúr had conquered Rúm (Asia Minor) he came to Ádharbáyján, bringing many captives, and thence to Ardabíl, where he sent for Khwája 'Alí, to whom he offered a cup of poison. Khwája 'Alí took and drank it, saying:—

Thereupon some of the darwishes who accompanied him began to ejaculate the dhikr, and as their ecstasy rose Khwája 'Alí joined in the dance and was presently bathed in a perspiration which eliminated the poison from his system. Then Tímúr declared himself the devoted disciple of Khwája 'Alí, and gave him a number of his Turkish prisoners (asirán-i-Rúm), whom the Shaykh set free, assigning them dwellings near the shrine of the Shaykh of Ganja,¹ where their descendants, known as Ṣúfiyán-i-Rúmlú, still live. Tímúr also endowed Khwája 'Alí and his sons with many estates in Talwár, Qizil Úzan, Kamra near Iṣfahán, and Hamadán, but the transfer remained incomplete at his death and effective possession was not secured, though the title-deeds long afterwards fell into the hands of some of Sháh 'Abbás the Great's soldiers at the capture of a village near Balkh.

Another miracle of Khwája 'Alí concerns the conversion of a young winebibber who passed by his oratory carrying on his head a copper tray, which by the Shaykh's gaze was transmuted into gold:—

آن ظرف چون منظورِ نظرِ کیمیا اثر قدّس سرّه میشود و مرضکه درکان برو عارض شده بود ازو زایل می گردد

ا درقرب مزار متبرّك شيخ گنجه بكول، ا cannot understand the last word.

و طلا می شود و ازین جهة استکه انسانِ کاملرا آکسیرِ اعظم و جام ِ جهان نما و عیسی وقت می گویند،

The transmuted tray was handed over by the young man to the attendants of the shrine, who exchanged it for sheep, which they committed to the charge of the Íl-i-Khwája Chúpání, who yearly contribute from the flock thus acquired to the kitchen of the monastery.

Here follows, as usual, the personal description of the Shaykh, and a short account of his family. He had three sons, of whom the eldest was Shaykh Ja'far, noted for his exceptional learning, and represented in our author's time by Kalb Khán, Qásim Khán, Báqir Khán, Ibráhím Khán, Sulaymán Khán, Murád Khán, and Bayram Khán, all known as "Shaykh Ja'farí". The second son was Shaykh 'Abdu'r-Ralmán, whose descendants live at Kaskar and Ardabíl, and are represented by Mírzá Ibráhím mutawallí, after whom this branch of the family is called Ibráhímiyán. The third son, who succeeded his father, was called Shaykh Ibráhím, but is better known as Shaykh Sháh.

Khwája 'Alí was a somewhat prolific poet, and the selection of his Persian *ghazals* and quatrains given by our author occupies 19 pages (ff. 36b-44b) and comprises 228 verses. In his odes he adopts the *takhallus* of 'Alí.

Section VI (ff. 45a-46b)

Shaykh Sháh survived his father for nincteen years, during which he was director of the order, and died in 851/1447-8. He had six sons, as follows:—

(1) Shaykh Abú Sa'íd, librarian of the shrine, who had two sons, Shaykh Ján Mírzá, father of 'Alí Beg and grandfather of Qará Khán and Mír Mírán; and Taqí Mírzá. Mír Mírán had three children, Muhammad Sálih, Mahmúd Beg, the father of 'Abdu'l-Muṭṭalib, and a daughter who became

lady superior of the female members of the order (فقيره باشي).

- (2) Sayyid Ahmad, who left no issue.
- (3) Shaykh Báyczíd, some of whose descendants are enumerated.
- (4) Khwája Ján Mírzá, called the "Second Shaykh Jamálu'd-Dín" after his maternal grandfather. His mother was Khán-záda Páshá, daughter of Shaykh Jamálu'd-Dín, son of Shaykh Sadru'd-Dín. Khwája Ján Mírzá had four sons, two of whom, Khwája Almad and Khwája Asad, left no issue. The third, Khwája Hasan Beg, had six sons, enumerated in detail; and the fourth, Khwája Muhammad, was also the ancestor of several persons eminent in later times.
 - (5) Shaykh Ibráhím Khwájagí, who left no issue.
- (6) Shaykh Junayd, who succeeded his father as head of the order.

Section VII (ff. 46b-47b)

When Shaykh Junayd visited Diyár Bakr, the ruler of that country [Úzún] Hasan conceived a great affection and admiration for him and gave him his sister Khadíja Begum in marriage. She bore him Sultán Haydar, while the mother of his other son, Khwája Muḥammad, was a Circassian slave-girl, whose progeny are enumerated at some length. Shaykh Junayd was finally killed in battle in the neighbourhood of Shírwán, and buried in a village called Quryál or Qarúyál.¹

Section VIII (ff. 47b-48a)

Sultán Haydar, like his father, found favour in the eyes of his uncle Úzún Hasan, who gave him his daughter Bakí Áqá ² in marriage. She bore him three sons ere he was killed

¹ The latter form occurs in our MS., the former in the Turkish history of Munajjim-báshí (vol. iii, p. 181), which adds that he was fighting with Sultán Khalíl.

² Munajjim-báshí calls her 'Álam-sháh Begum.

at the early age of 20 on Thursday, Rajab 20, 893 (June 30, 1488). His sons were taken captive and imprisoned for four years near Shíráz. Sháh Isma'íl, then only a child, escaped to Gílán, but his brothers were killed, and he became the chief representative of the house of Ṣafí and the founder of its temporal supremacy.

Section IX (ff. 48a-51b)

Isma'îl, who was born in 892/1487, is given the full royal title of Shah-i-Jam-jáh-i-Jannat-bárgáh Murawwij-i-madhhab-i-A'imma-i-Ithná-'ashariyya Sháh Isma'îl Bahádur Khán, "the King whose rank is as that of Jamshíd, whose Court is like Paradise, the Promoter of the Sect of the Twelve Imáms." He became king at the age of 13 in 905/1499-1500, 170 years after the death of his illustrious ancestor Shaykh Ṣafiyyu'd-Dín,¹ reigned for twenty-five years, and died in 930/1523-4. He composed much poetry in Persian and Turkish, using the takhallus, or pen-name, of Khatá't.² Selections from his Turkish poems only, amounting in all to eighty-seven verses, are here given (ff. 48b-51b).

Section X (f. 52a)

Sháh Tahmásp, the second Safawí Sháh, was born in 919/1513-14, ascended the throne at the age of 11 in 930/1523-4, reigned for fifty-two lunar years, and died on Safar 15, 982 (June 6, 1574).

Section XI (f. 52a)

Sháh 'Abbás the Great was born in 978/1570-1, succeeded his grandfather at the age of 18 in 996/1587-8, and died after a reign of forty-one years in 1038/1628-9.

Section XII (f. 52a-b)

Sháh Safí succeeded his grandfather in 1038/1628-9, and died in 1052/1642-3 after a reign of thirteen years.

¹ In 735/1334. See p. 403 supra.

² Cf. Gibb's Hist. of Ottoman Poetry, vol. iii, p. 106; and V. Minorsky in the Revue du Monde Musulman for Sept.-Dec. 1920, p. 70, and n. 2, ad calc.

Section XIII (f. 52b)

Sháh 'Abbás II was born in 1042/1632-3, succeeded to the throne at the age of 10 in 1052/1642-3, and reigned a little more than twenty-four years.

Section XIV (ff. 52b-53a)

Sultán Sulaymán, in whose reign our author wrote, came to the throne in 1077/1666-7. After uttering prayers for his long life and prosperity, the author excuses himself from giving any fuller account of the achievements of the Ṣafawi Sháhs on account of the multiplicity of good and detailed histories already existing, and so concludes the main portion of his work.

Conclusion (ff. 53a-88a)

The conclusion (khátima), in three sections, is entirely devoted to the glorification of the author's ancestor Shaykh Záhid of Gílán and his descendants, and to establishing and illustrating the high degree of honour which they at all times enjoyed with the Ṣafawis, both before and after their attainment of kingly state.

Section I (ff. 53a-68b)

This section deals entirely with the intimate relations existing between Shaykh Záhid and Shaykh Ṣafiyyu'd-Dín, and is illustrated by about a dozen anecdotes, many of which are on the authority of Shaykh Ṣadru'd-Dín. Most of these are of a thaumaturgical character, and include instances of telepathy, sympathetic pains, and prognostications of the honour and greatness to which the house of Ṣafi shall attain. Mention is incidentally made of several contemporary darwishes, such as Shaykh Najibu'd-Dín Buzghúsh of Shíráz, Faḍlún-i-Jabalí, Mawláná Táju'd-Dín, Jamálu'd-Dín, and Muwaffaqu'd-Dín. At the age of 70 Shaykh Záhid married a girl of 14, who bore him a son, Hájji Shamsu'd-Dín, and a daughter, Bíbí Fáṭima, whom he gave in marriage to Shaykh Ṣafi, and who was the mother of Ṣadru'd-Dín.¹ A long account of the death and burial of

Shaykh Záhid concludes this section, and a narrative of the dispute as to where he should be interred, whether at Gushtásfí, Júmáq-ábád in Múqán, or Siyáw-rúd. His death took place in Rajab, 700 (March-April, 1301). Both Shaykh Záhid and Shaykh Safí are represented as making use of dialect: the former says (f. 53b) "ankin bú", explained as "chunín báshad" ("so let it be!"), while the latter (f. 59a) recites a "Fahlawí", or dialect, quatrain.

Section II (ff. 69a-74b)

This section treats of the affection and regard for the children of Shaykh Záhid shown by Shaykh Safiyyu'd-Dín, especially to his brother-in-law Ḥájji Shamsu'd-Dín, to whom he gave in marriage a daughter born to him by another wife (not Bíbí Fátima, the sister of Shamsu'd-Dín). He also showed the greatest affection and respect for Shamsu'd-Dín's son Núru'd-Dín Hámid, and for the half-brothers of the latter (his own grandsons), Shaykh Ḥámid and Mu'ínu'd-Dín, who survived their father, as testified in a declaration (wathiga, cited on ff. 70b-71a of the text) written and signed by Shaykh Ja'far ibn Khwája 'Alí ibn Sadru'd-Dín ibn Şafiyyu'd-Dín, and dated 945/1538-9. Here follows an anecdote of Shaykh Safiyyu'd-Dín and Dimashq Khwája,1 into which is introduced a pretty story about a gardener who, in return for a very luscious fruit which he presented to the king, is bidden to take what he will from the royal treasury as a reward, and selects a phial of rose-water, which he carries back to his garden and empties over the roots of the fruit-tree, meaning thereby that since he owed the king's favour to the fruit-tree, the reward should be conferred on it rather than on There are half a dozen anecdotes in this section, most of which are related on the authority of Shavkh Sadru'd-Dín.

Section III (ff. 74b-88a)

In this section the author, Shaykh Husayn, son of Shaykh Abdál, son of Shaykh Amír-i-Záhidí, describes the favours

¹ He was put to death on Aug. 25, 1327, by Abú Sa'id the Mongol.



Shaykh Abdal Pir-zada, the author's father, presenting the captured horse of the Uzbek leader, Din Muhammad Khan, to Shah 'Abba's the Great (MS. f. 80a).

constantly shown to his family by Shaykh Safiyyu'd-Dín and his descendants down to the time of writing. After the death of Sadru'd-Dín their fortunes varied until the time of Sultán Haydar, who, by a deed which our author quotes in extenso (f. 77a), confirmed Qutbu'd-Dín Abú Sa'íd, son of Rafí'u'd-Dín, son of Núru'd-Dín Hámid, son of Shamsu'd-Dín, son of Shaykh Záhid, in the possession of certain estates enjoyed by his ancestors. This document (wathiqa) is dated Rajab, 888 (August, 1843), and was in the handwriting of Sultán Haydar himself. Sháh Isma'il and his son and successor Sháh Tahmásp continued these favours to the contemporary members of the Záhidí family, Shaykh 'Abdu'l-Wahháb, Shaykh Sharif, and Áqá Shaykh, and another deed signed by Tahmásp on the 25th of Jumáda ii, 966 (April 4, 1559) concerning these properties is quoted in full by the author (ff. 77b-78b). After this, however, the province of Shírwán was overrun by the "ill-omened Turks" (Rúmiyya-i-Shúmiyya), and misfortunes befel the Záhidí family, whose estates were seized and some of whom were slain. In the time of Sháh 'Abbás the Great, however, the author's father Shaykh Abdál ibn Shaykh Amír made an appeal to that powerful king for protection and consideration, to which the Sháh readily responded, saying, "Shumá Pír-zúda-i-má'id" ("You are the children of our Pir," or Spiritual Guide), whence the family received the title of Pir-záda. afterwards Shaykh Abdál greatly distinguished himself in the battle against Dín Muhammad Khán and Báqí Khán the Uzbeks, unhorsing the former and presenting his horse to the Sháh, who was greatly pleased and appointed him custodian (mutawalli) of the shrine at Ardabil. The text of the document confirming this appointment, and dated the end of Rabí' 1, 1009 (October 9, 1600), is given in full (ff. 81a-83b). The services rendered to the shrine by Shaykh Abdál Pír-záda are next enumerated under eighteen heads (ff. 84b-86a), and the text of a royal order (Hukm) acknowledging these services and dated Jumáda ii, 1010 (December, 1601) follows on f. 86b.

Shaykh Abdál was succeeded on his death by his brother Shaykh Sharíf Beg, who held the office of custodian for eighteen years. The author, who describes himself as—

says that he himself from his youth had been attached to the Sháh's service, "making the dust of the royal steed the tutty of his ophthalmia-stricken eyes," until old age compelled him, after the conquest of Qandahár in 1059/1649, "to choose the corner of seclusion and occupy himself with prayers for the long life and prosperity of his Spiritual Guide and Exemplar" (Murshid u Muqtadá), to wit, the Sháh, who, he earnestly hopes, may succeed in once more obtaining possession of Baghdád.

Here ends the book, which, as we have seen, treats of the spiritual rather than the political character of the Safawis, and hence devotes much more space to the history of the family before they attained to sovereign power than afterwards. Herein lies its importance; for the phenomena connected with the rise of this power, so momentous in the history of Persia and the neighbouring countries, are, as yet, by no means clear, but are evidently closely connected with several obscure religious movements involving sundry darwish orders in Persia and Turkey. Significant indications are to be found in the recent writings of Dr. F. H. Babinger of Würzburg 1 and Mr. V. Minorsky 2 and in a very scholarly Turkish work by Kyüprülü-záda Muḥammad Fu'ád entitled Ilk Mutaṣavvif-lar ("the First Súfís"), printed at Constantinople in 1919. One is tempted to see a very close

¹ Schejch Bedr-ed-Dīn der Sohn des Richters von Simāw: ein Beitrag zur Geschichte der Sekten - Wesens im altosmanischen Reich (Berlin and Leipzig, 1921), especially pp. 78 et seqq.

² Note sur la Secte des Ahle-Haqq, in the Revue du Monde Musulman for Sept.-Dec. 1920, pp. 19-97.

analogy between the rise of the 'Abbasids in the eighth century and of the Safawis in the fifteenth, the ground in both cases having been assiduously prepared by widespread politico-religious propaganda.

One further point must be emphasized in conclusion. When a dynasty has been firmly established, there is always a tendency on the part of its historians to endeavour to prove that its ancestors were in their day noble and great. About the importance of Shaykh Safiyyu'd-Dín, from whom the Safawi kings derive their descent and their name, there is. however, no doubt. Two proofs of his renown and influence may be adduced. The first is the existence of an enormous monograph of him in Persian compiled shortly after his death and entitled Safwatu's-Safá. There is a fine MS. of this work (Add, 11,745) in the British Museum, fully described by Rieu on pp. 345-6 of his Persian Catalogue, but, though cited in most histories of the Safawis, it is very rare.1 It was composed about 750/1350, some fifteen years after Shaykh Safi's death, by Darwish Tawakkul ibn Isma'il, known as Ibnu'l-Bazzáz. That so extensive and detailed an account of the Shaykh and his miracles should have been composed by a contemporary may be taken as sufficient proof that even in his own day he enjoyed a great reputation.

The second proof is furnished by two letters of the great minister and historian of the Mongols, Rashídu'd-Dín Fadlu'lláh, contained in the unique manuscript formerly belonging to Sir Albert Houtem Schindler, and now to myself.² Of the fifty-three letters contained in this collection, two (Nos. 45 and 49) are concerned with Shaykh Safi. No. 45 is actually addressed to him, and contains particulars of allowances of food and money assigned to him from crown lands and from Rashíd's private estates on condition that

¹ There is another MS. in the Library of King's College, Cambridge, No. 87 of the Pote Collection.

² See the JRAS. for Oct. 1917, pp. 693-4, and my Persian Literature under Tartar Dominion, pp. 80-6.

on the night of the Prophet's birthday he will entertain the notables of Ardabíl to a dinner, to be followed by religious music and dancing (simá'), and concluding with prayers for Rashíd. No. 49 is addressed by Rashíd to his son Mír Ahmad, then governor of Ardabíl, enjoining him amongst other things to seek to please and propitiate Shaykh Ṣalí, and to win his favour by obeying him and offering him presents. Great must have been the influence and reputation of a saint whose favourable regards so powerful a minister was so eager to win.

MISCELLANEOUS COMMUNICATIONS

NOTES ON THE PERSIAN CUNEIFORM INSCRIPTIONS

(1) There are some curious little discrepancies in King and Thompson's monumental work on the Inscriptions of Darius on the rock of Behistûn, with regard to the ninth epigraph, i.e. the words describing the figure of the Scythian king, the last of the pretenders, over whom Darius vaunts his triumph. In the first place, it is stated on p. xxxvi of the Introduction that this description is to be found in all the three versions, Persian, Susian, and Babylonian, but on p. 210 it is definitely asserted (and the accuracy of the statement seems to be beyond doubt) that the epigraph "referring to Skunkha is not represented in the Babylonian version". A rather more serious difference is to be found with respect to the name of the king, who is called Skunkha on pp. xxxvi and lxxiii of the Introduction, and on p. 210, as cited above, but on p. 91 is twice called "Skunka the Scythian". On the same page the cuneiform letters constituting the epigraph are transliterated thus: Sku(n)ka hya Saka," which is translated "This is Skunka, the Scythian". The cuneiform character given in the text is, however, (M), which is quite distinct from and could not be confused with Σ , the equivalent of k. It is noteworthy that Tolman in his Guide to the Old Persian Inscriptions, published 1893, gives "lyam Saku(n)ka hya Saka" as the transliteration of this epigraph, though in his later Ancient Persuan Lexicon, published in 1908, his reading is "Iyam Skuxa hya Saka", and in his autographed Cuneiform Supplement, published two years later, the letter transliterated by x is shown as being (()) in the actual inscription.

It may be noted that King and Thompson's cuneiform text is by no means free from mistakes. Within five pages (pp. 49-53) I recently found the following three errors. On p. 49

(col. iii, line 41) $\overline{\gamma\gamma}$ is given by mistake for $\overline{\gamma\gamma}$ (i) in the last syllable of the word asabaribis, the first form being really the equivalent of d. Similarly on p. 50 (col. iii, line 48) (n, a form quite devoid of meaning, occurs instead of (g), as the second letter of the word agarbaya. Again on p. 53 (col. iii, line 62) the form (which is really a dental s) is to be found as a substitute for (r) in the word $k\hat{a}ram$. In these circumstances it could hardly be assumed as a certainty that the real reading on the rock is $\langle\langle \uparrow \uparrow \rangle\rangle$ in the absence of further evidence. The Susian (Elamite) version does not help to settle the point. It reads "Hi Iškunka akka Sakka", but there does not appear to be any equivalent for kh in the Susian cuneiform, and we find kh either deaspirated into k or omitted altogether in the Susian equivalents of proper names, which begin in the Persian character with kh. For instance, Khšathrita, the name assumed by the pretender Fravartis (Pharortes), appears in the Susian epigraph as Šattarrita, and in the Elamite versions of inscriptions of Xerxes his name (Khšayaršan in the Persian versions) is represented as being Kšeršša. A strong argument for reading (()) is that in line 28 of the short and mutilated fifth column of the Persian version this letter occurs, followed by the word nama (name) in a passage in which there are two clear mentions and one probable mention of Scythia, and in which the context renders it likely that a reference is made to the capture of the king of Scythia. What, however, to my mind finally clinches the matter is that Rawlinson (JRAS. 1847) gives ((), and this, in view of Rawlinson's care and accuracy, seems to leave no doubt that this is the correct reading.

(2) In two inscriptions of Artaxerxes found at Susa and Hamadan, the word anahata occurs twice (in the nominative and genitive cases in each inscription), and this word is apparently in each inscription, though the Susa inscription is badly mutilated, mentioned along with and between the names of the deities Ahura Mazda and Mithra. This word

has been identified with the Avesta anahita (undefiled), which occurs repeatedly in Yasna lxv as an epithet of Aredvi Sura, but its identity with the common modern Persian word ناهيد (the name given to the planet Venus) does not appear to have been noticed, though the identity seems beyond doubt. The aphaeresis of "a" at the beginning of words, particularly before "n", is a common phenomenon, an instance being furnished by the name of the king نوشيروان, the first syllable of which represents the Avesta word anaosha (undying), which occurs in the Mihir Yasht (x-125).

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THE ETYMOLOGY OF DARA-I-NUR

The Valley of Dara-i-Nūr lies east-north-east of Kabul city, and is well known. But it has not often been visited by Englishmen. Apparently the fullest account of the valley is contained in the late Colonel H. C. Tanner's Notes on the Chugani and neighbouring tribes of Kafiristan, p. 278 of the Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society, vol. iii, for 1881. The paper was read on April 11, 1881, and will be found in the new monthly series which has succeeded the Proceedings. It is No. 5 for May, 1882, and comes immediately after a paper on Lake Nyasa. It may also be found in Ac. 6170 of the B.M. Catalogue.

Reclus, and probably also Ritter, says that the words Dara-i-Nūr mean Valley of Noah, and this is probably correct, though how the Arabic Nūḥ (نح) has been changed into Nūr is a little obscure. Probably it is due to some peculiarity of local pronunciation. In the Pushtū edition of the Pentateuch, published by the Bible Society, Noah is spelt according to the Arabic . At all events, Colonel Tanner seems clear that Nūr stands for Noah, though he is doubtful about the place being called Dara by the inhabitants. He also states, p. 294, that on the summit of Kemel (Amrit or

Ramkund) there is a small lake, and that on its shores there still rest, according to tradition, the petrified remains of Noah's Ark, and that on the plain of Laghman below there is the tomb of Lamech, the father of Noah, and that in Nür Dara there is Noah's tomb, and that there is also a place in the neighbourhood called Nür Gal. Further, there was a Chugānī tribesman who helped him much who was called Hazrat Nūr, that is the Prophet Noah!

To this evidence we may add the fact that there is a well-known tribe in Eastern Afghanistan called the Nūrzai, which is described both in Elphinstone, vol. ii, and in Raverty's Notes. The famous Ahmad Durānī belonged to this tribe, apparently, for he is called Nūrzai in Elphinstone. As most of the Afghan tribes have the affix zai, as being the offspring of a patriarch, it seems pretty certain that Nūrzai means "descendants of Noah". Perhaps some reader of the JRAS. may be able to clear up the point more fully.

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January 28, 1921.

SITA'S PARENTAGE

I have more than once drawn attention to the fact that, in the Kāshmīrī version of the Rāmāyaṇa, Sītā is referred to as the daughter of Mandôdarī, the wife of her abductor, Rāvaṇa. It is hardly necessary to state that there is nothing of the kind in the Vālmīki Rāmāyaṇa, and I have long searched for some early authority for this surprising statement. Now, thanks to a passing reference in Rai Saheb Dineshchandra Sen's admirable lectures on *The Bengali Ramayanas*, I have been able to trace a complete version of the legend to the Adbhuta Rāmāyaṇa. This work, it may be observed, is current in Kashmīr, where MSS. of it have been obtained.² The following is the story as told therein:—

Sarga vi, 1. Nārada, having been insulted by Lakṣmī's servants, curses her to be born on the earth as a Rākṣasī.

¹ p. 35. ² See Bühler's Report, p. vii (No. 105).

- 22. She accepts the curse, and agrees that, if a Rākṣasī drink a pitcher full of blood contributed little by little by forest Munis, she would become incarnate in that Rākṣasī's womb. In this way, though born of a Rākṣasī, she would not be of Rākṣasa blood.
- viii, 2. The Rākṣasa Rāvaṇa by his austerities sets the whole universe on fire. Brahmā, by offering him a boon, induces him to cease from his austerities. Rāvaṇa chooses as his boon that it should not be possible for Dēvas, Asuras, Yakṣas, Piśācas, Nāgas, Rākṣasas, Vidyādharas, Kinnaras, or Apsarases to kill him. In consequence he conquers the whole world.
- 14. One day, Rāvaṇa, roaming in the Daṇdaka forest, sees the Rṣis engaged in their fire sacrifices, and meditates on the fact that he has not yet conquered them. He does not wish to kill them, but, in token of conquest, with the tip of his arrow draws a little blood from each, and collects it in a pitcher.
- 19. It has happened that one of these Rsis, Ghṛtsamada by name, the father of a hundred sons, has before this been asked by his wife for a daughter who should be an incarnation of Lakṣmī. With this object, he has day by day sprinkled milk from a wisp of kuśa grass, with certain mystic charms, into a pitcher, and, on the day of Rāvaṇa's arrival, he has duly set up the pitcher as usual, and has gone off into the forest. It happens that this is the very pitcher that Rāvaṇa takes up and fills with the Rṣis' blood. He takes it home, and gives it into the charge of his wife, Mandôdarī, telling her to take special care of it, as the contents are more deadly even than poison.
- 25. Rāvaṇa, having become all-powerful, neglects his wife, and wanders about the Himâlaya, Mēru, and the Vindhya, sporting with the daughters of the Dēvas, Dānavas, Yakṣas, and Gandharvas. Consumed by jealousy, Mandôdarī determines to put an end to her own life, and, in order to accomplish this in the most thorough manner possible, drinks the contents of the pitcher of Rṣis' blood, which Rāvaṇa has

assured her is of so deadly a quality. Instead of dying, she finds that, owing to the pitcher having contained milk that has been dedicated to Lakṣmī, she has suddenly become enceinte. Dismayed at this happening when her husband has been away from her for a whole year, she hurries off to Kurukṣētra under pretence of making a pilgrimage. There, garbham niskṛṣya, she secretly buries the girl-babe in the ground, and, after bathing in the Sarasvatī, returns home with no one any the wiser.

36. Thither, in course of time, Janaka comes with his golden plough, ploughs up the babe, and, under the instructions of Sarasvatī, takes her home, cherishes her, and calls her name Sītā.

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CAMBERLEY.
A pril 12, 1921.

RAJASEKHARA AND THE HOME OF PAISACI

May I offer some considerations as to Professor Konow's remarks on pp. 244 ff. of the *Journal* for April, 1921, regarding Rājaśēkhara's account of the home of Paiśācī. These remarks contain two statements of fact which we may at once accept as correct. These are:—

- 1. Rājaśēkhara states that the Bhūtabhāṣā was favoured in the West of Central India.
- 2. According to Bāṇa, the Bṛhatkathā was written in Bhūtabhāsā.

Professor Konow then makes an assumption that the Bhūtabhāṣā of Rājaśēkhara cannot have been anything but the same Bhūtabhāṣā as that referred to by Bāṇa.

If that assumption is correct, then his argument that Paiśācī—the language of the Bṛhatkathā—was a language familiar to the people of West Central India is inexpugnable. But is it correct? If not, his whole argument falls to the ground.

Before discussing this point I must make my own position

quite clear. From the first I have maintained that the nidus in India of the Paiśācī language—the tract where it was spoken in its purest form—was in the north-west of India, in Kēkaya and thereabouts. But, at the same time, I admitted that it was probable 1 that thence it spread to other parts of India, and that a variety, or dialectic form, of it may very well have been spoken in the Vindhya Hills, close to the very country mentioned by Rājaśēkhara. The difference between Professor Konow and myself is not so much as to where Paiśācī was spoken, but as to where was its home.

Let us now return to the question of Rājaśēkhara's and Bāṇa's Bhūtabhāṣās. We are at once confronted by a fact which has been hitherto much neglected by European students of Prakrit-that there were in India two different schools of Prakrit grammarians—an Eastern and a Western.² former traces its descent from Vararuci, himself an Easterner, and among his followers were Kramadīśvara, Lankêśvara, Rāma-śarman (Tarkavāgīśa), and Mārkandēya. Amongst the famous writings of this school may be mentioned the Kīrtilatā of Vidyāpati Thakur, the Caryácarya-viniścaya, and, probably, the Prākrta-pingala, not to mention the many plays composed by Eastern authors. The teaching of the Western school is based on the original of the so-called Vālmīki Sūtras, now extant only in a much expanded form. These were adopted, with their entire grammatical terminology (widely differing from that of the East) by writers such as Trivikrama, Laksmīdhara, and Simharāja.3 Hēmacandra also followed their teaching, but employed the special terminology used by him for his Sanskrit grammar.

Even in the accounts of standard Prakrit there are differences between the two schools. For instance,

¹ Cf. ZDMG. ∠xvi, p. 76.

² Owing to the importance of Hemacandra's grammar, it is the Prakrit of the Western school that has attracted the attention of European scholars.

³ Cf. Simharāja, xii, 42.

Hēmacandra (ii, 209) denies the correctness of the rule laid down by Vararuci (ii, 7), Rāma-śarman and Mārkandēya (ii, 7). In vi, 4, and on other Mārkandēva roundly accuses $_{
m the}$ occasions. Rājaśēkhara of making mistakes in Prakrit. But the greatest contrasts are in the important rules dealing with dhatvādēśas. In his fourth chapter, Hēmacandra gives 927 Prakrit substitutes for Sanskrit verbal forms. In his eleventh chapter, and elsewhere, Mārkandēva gives 618. Yet only 222 are common to both, and of these, in 62 instances, the two grammarians differ in the Sanskrit translations given by them. Hēmacandra gives 705 ādēśas which are ignored by Mārkandēyā, and Markandēya gives 396 ādēśas which are ignored by Hēmacandra. We thus see that, even in regard to standard Prakrit, the two schools were at variance.

If we consider the dialects, the want of agreement is still more marked. I do not refer so much to Śaurasēnī, though the eastern grammarians, Rāma-śarman and Mārkaṇḍēya, treat it much more fully than does Hēmacandra or Trivikrama; but the eastern account of Māgadhī differs in important points of phonetics and accidence (Māgadhī being an eastern language) from that given by the Westerners. The Easterners describe a number of minor dialects and sub-dialects which are altogether omitted from consideration by the others. The Apabhramśa of Kramadīsvara, Rāma-śarman, and Mārkaṇḍēya departs widely from that of Hēmacandra and Trivikrama, and when we come to Paiśācī, we find two very different dialects described. Vararuci, Rāma-śarman,¹ and Mārkaṇḍēya all agree ² in their accounts of a language which

¹ Kramadīśvara's grammar devotes only two sūtras to this language.

² The one exception is that Vararuci does not allow the hardening of sonants at the heginning of a word or in conjuncts, while the later writers do. It is curious that Hēmacandra evidently knew of this discrepancy in writing his very brief account of Cāhkāpaiśācika (iv, 327), i.e. of the Paiśācī of the Easterners, which he himself differentiates from his own Paiśācī (so also Trivikrama). Here both he and Trivikrama plainly refer to Vr. x, 3, and equally plainly, rightly or wrongly, misunderstand what is there said. Vr. says that sonants become surds

they call "Paiśācī" or "Paiśācika", and which is not the same as the language described under that name by Trivikrama, Hēmacandra, Lakṣmīdhara, and Simharāja. These latter agree amongst themselves in describing their Paiśācī, and this is a dialect allied to that described by the Easterners, but not the same, and it may quite possibly have been spoken in Central India as Professor Konow maintains. But while no single one of them claims that what he aescribes is the language of the Bṛhatkathā, on the other hand, the Easterners claim their Paiśācī as the actual form of the language used in that work.

When the Easterners Rāma-śaiman and Mārkaṇdēya agree in placing the standard Paiśācī of the Brhatkathā in Kēkaya, they thus in no way contradict Rājaśēkhara, who places his Bhūtabhāsā in Central India. Professor Konow says that there must have been a different tradition about the Brhatkathā in Mārkaṇdēya's time (from the tradition current in the time of Rājaśēkhara). Here I venture to differ from him. There was a difference of tradition, but it was about Paiśācī, and not about the Brhatkathā, and it was not a question of time, but of locality and school. The Easterners had one tradition about the Paiśācī of the North-West, and the Westerners had another tradition about the Paiśācī of Central India. The two traditions are parallel, not mutually contradictory.

We are now in a position to discuss Bāṇa's statement that the Bhūtabhāṣā was the language of the Bṛhatkathā. This is in exact accord with all the above. Bāṇa was an Easterner. He was born and brought up on the banks of the Sōn, and it can only have been the tradition of the Eastern school that formed the basis of his education. If, therefore, as was

ayujōr, i.e. when not forming part of a conjunct consonant. Hc. and Tr. both interpret the expression as meaning "not in the case of the root yuj-". From this it is plant that they read ayuji in their copies of Vararuci, and that they had not seen Bhāmaha's commentary. It is hardly necessary to point out that ayuji could also have the sense meant by Vr.

undoubtedly the case, by "Bhūtabhāṣā" he meant "Paisaci". he can have meant only the dialect called "Paiśācī" by the Easterners, so that it was in their Paiśācī not in the Paiśācī of the Westerners-that according to him the Brhatkathā was composed. In this he agrees with Mārkandēya, who, under the head of Kēkaya Paiśācī, quotes a sentence from the Brhatkathā to illustrate a point in that It is worth noting that, although this sentence contains only two words, one of them (kupaci for kvacit) could not occur in the Paiśācī of the Westerners, whose account contains no provision for the hardening of v (or b) to p, as is specially provided for by all the Easterners from Vararuci to Mārkandēya. It may not be said that Mārkandēya's rules are late, and therefore untrustworthy; for they agree in all essential particulars not only with the statements of Rāmasarman, but also with those of Vararuci, who was far older than Hēmacandra

I therefore submit that it is not safe to assume that the Bhūtabhāṣā of the Western Rājaśēkhara is the same as the Bhūtabhāṣā of Bāṇa; and, this being the case, it by no means follows, from the statement of the former, that the Bṛhatkathā was written in a language spoken, or favoured, in West Central India.

GEORGE A. GRIERSON.

CAMBERLEY.
April 30, 1921.

NOTICES OF BOOKS

DIE ALTPERSISCHE RELIGION UND DAS JUDENTUM. UNTERSCHIEDE UEBEREINSTIMMUNGEN UND GEGENSEITIGE BEEINFLUSSUNGEN. By Dr. J. SCHEFTELOWITZ. $14 \times 7\frac{1}{2}$, pp. viii, 240. Giessen: Alfred Toepelmann. 1920.

Ever since the discovery of the Avesta in the middle of the eighteenth century by Anquetil du Perron, it became evident that there existed a close similarity between Parsism and Judaism. Not only had they many ritual practices and ethical teachings in common, but the Demonology of Parsism seemed to agree very closely with many of the beliefs current among the Jews from the time of the Exile downwards. No less was this the case in some of the eschatological teachings, such as the life of the soul after death, resurrection, final judgment. The problem thus offered has attracted the attention of scholars, and has been the subject of many investigations, often with a contradictory result. Did Parsism borrow from Judaism, or was Judaism indebted to Parsism for these teachings, beliefs, and practices? Some found the origin in the Avesta and its later developments, others in the Bible and the natural organic development emanating from the Bible. Of course, much depended upon the date of the compilation of the Avesta and of the Gathas, and on the results of the so-called higher Biblical criticism which had assigned to the various books of the Bible and especially to the Pentateuch a much more recent origin than the time of Moses. For if the Pentateuch was only a few centuries older than the time of the Exile and the Avesta as old as the time claimed for Zaratustra, then, naturally, Judaism might have borrowed The late Professor Darmesteter, in his from Parsism. introduction to the English translation of the Avesta, came, however, to the conclusion that the latter book depended to a large extent on the Pentateuch, and that it had been

deeply influenced by the Law of Moses and by Jewish traditions and practices. This view was hotly contested by others, especially as some of these beliefs have a distinct bearing on the Judaism of the first century, notably on the doctrine of Satan. The matter was therefore not allowed to rest, and the conclusions arrived at were far from convincing. It must be stated also that most of these writers drew their information from secondary sources. Very few, if any, went to the Iranic and Hebrew originals, and even then they were satisfied with using translations.

The author of the present book, however, whose competence in these literatures cannot be gainsaid, has subjected this problem to a very thorough investigation. He has gone to the originals, and has followed up every detail with such minuteness that he has left very little, if anything at all, for anyone to glean after him. As the title indicates, his investigation is of a threefold nature. He deals with the differences between the old Persian religion and Judaism, agreements between them, and mutual influence exercised upon one another. The matter is divided into two parts, of which the first contains the introduction, the fundamental differences between Judaism and Parsism, inasmuch as Zaratustra, unlike Moses, brings to his people new gods, and endows them with corporality, then the cult of the dead, furthermore dualism, and the introduction of magic into the service and into the prayer. And in the second part, divided up into twenty chapters, Dr. Scheftelowitz studies the parallel religious conceptions in Parsism and Judaism, such as demons, evil-eye, curse, charms, and conjurations, signs and omens, some similar myths, tales, and legends, e.g. the Fall of Man, the Flood, Joseph and the wife of Potiphar, the exposure of Moses, etc., precepts concerning purity of life, similarity in various sacrifices, firstlings, etc., kindness to animals in and about the house. He then discusses at length (chap. 11) the parallel fundamental conceptions between the two religions, such as the omnipresence and omniscience of the Divinity.

who sustains the world and protects the pious. Similarity in prayer.

A special chapter is devoted to the Fravashis and the Protecting Angels. The eschatalogical questions are now treated under the following headings: belief in immortality, the fate of the soul immediately after death in the post-Exilic writings, life everlasting, the heavenly register and the weighing balance, the heavenly paradise and the garments of the blessed ones, resurrection. In chapter 19 the author discusses the borrowings of Parsism from Judaism, how much the former is indebted to the latter, and finally, how much both are indebted to Babylonian traditions especially as far as astrology is concerned.

The final conclusion to which Scheftclowitz arrives is that Judaism and Parsism have passed through an organic evolution; they are practically independent of one another, but in their evolution they have followed a parallel course which has led to similarities in both religions, although they have not directly borrowed to any large extent from one another, Judaism certainly less from Parsism than Parsism from Judaism; moreover, no trace of Parsism can be found in the whole of the Biblical writings. It will easily be seen from the above summary that Dr. Scheftelowitz has treated the subject exhaustively. He has drawn upon the original for all his proofs and arguments.

The present writer arrived at same conclusions in his article on Parsism and Judaism (Hastings Cyclopedia of Religion and Ethics). But he ventured to go one step further, for a new problem arises. Whence have both Parsism and post-Biblical Judaism borrowed some of those practices and beliefs which are so strikingly similar in both, and he suggested for both a common Babylonian origin. This was the common starting-point, but the development afterwards took a somewhat different course in Parsism and Judaism, hence the similarity and the dissimilarity. To the author of the book the thanks of all interested in the subject are due for the scholarly, masterly treatment and the lucid exposition based on a complete knowledge and use of the entire literature extant. An excellent index of subjects, as well as one of the authors referred to in the book, conclude the work, which, moreover, is beautifully printed, and under present circumstances at a very great sacrifice.

M. GASTER.

Dead Towns and Living Men, being Pages from an Antiquary's Notebook. By C. Leonard Woolley. 9 × 6, 236 pp. Humphrey Milford, Oxford Univ. Press. 1920.

A title apt to mislead the would-be reader, for happily this delightful book contains very little of what is dead, but much of what is alive. The antiquarian appears in a new light. He is thoroughly human; he lives in his present surroundings. We hear very little of diggings and finds, of inscriptions and monuments, but we hear very much and almost exclusively of the way in which these diggings have been undertaken of the men who worked at them, and of the way in which Mr. Woolley has been able to win their confidence and to enlist their hearty co-operation. The historic background is, of course, not wanting. Enough is told to make us understand the charm of the places, and here and there a sketch of the life that once flowed in the cities now declared dead; a glimpse into the past is granted to the reader sufficient to captivate and interest him in the quaint anecdotes in the comings and the goings of the men with whom Mr. Woolley worked. We get here at first hand an insight into the character of the Arabs, working on the plains of Mesopotamia, of the Fellahin in Egypt, and also of the workmen in Italy. The characters of these men stand out boldly, their virtues and defects, and their human weaknesses.

We learn to understand how easily these people can be managed by anyone who enters their peculiar inner life and fathoms skilfully and sympathetically their psychology. Mr. Woolley rightly deprecates the attempts of introducing what is called Western civilization among these primitive folk. He rose in their estimation by refusing to allow one of these Arabs to strut about in a waistcoat and in high boots, but insisting on his wearing the original garb.

Mr. Woolley gives us also a sketch of the bureaucratic Turk, his corruption, his avarice, and the way in which many of these have contributed to plunge the peoples under their rule in great misery. But what would one say of a British "effendi" who, when the Governor refuses to grant him permission to excavate in the Turk's country, is pressed to do so by the decisive argument of a revolver put at the head of the Governor, or who quashed legal proceedings, however farcical, by the same argument of the revolver levelled at the judge, as Mr. Woolley has done. The judgment would not be very favourable to the British "effendi". Mr. Woolley has the courage of telling the story. Yet let it not be forgotten that the Turkish administration has become what it is by the Greeks. When the Turks occupied Constantinople they entered then upon the full inheritance of the highly developed, corrupt, and vile Byzantine administration, which has ever since, through the activity of the Phanar, poisoned the wells of that administration until it had brought about its destruction. Mr. Woolley describes in his vivid style the life during his excavations in Egypt, Italy, Carchemish, etc., especially his experiences in the latter place, and in Aleppo. The book has been written in captivity, but it shows very little trace of the durance vile in which he lived. How did he manage to save the large number (twenty-three) of excellent photos, which admirably illustrate the book, and are an additional charm to these attractive pages, some of which, probably, are the last representations of a world which is fast passing away?

M. GASTER.

Dodi Ve-nechdi (Uncle and Nephew). The work of Berachya Hanakdan, now edited from MSS. at Munich and Oxford, with an English translation, introduction, etc., to which is added the first English translation from the Latin of Adelard of Bath's Quaestiones Naturales. By Hermann Gollancz, M.A., D.Litt. 14 × 7, pp. xxii, 220. Published by Humphrey Milford, Oxford Univ. Press. 1920.

In 1902 Dr. Gollancz published the Ethical Treatises of Berachya, and promised then to follow them up with the publication of another work by the same author. He has now fulfilled his promise in the present publication of the treatise called Uncle and Nephew. This work has been preserved in two different rescensions, a long one (the Munich MS.) and a short one (Bodleian and other MSS.). Both these texts have now been printed with an English translation. In an introduction of twenty-two pages Dr. Gollancz discusses some of the problems arising out of this work of Berachya, and these are manifold. The book belongs to the large class of the Elucidaria, so popular in the Middle Ages, manuals of instruction by way of questions and answers. Berachya was not an independent author. He was rather more, a translator or a copyist. Already those who for the first time have drawn attention to this work, especially Steinschneider, have not failed to recognize an intimate connexion between this treatise and a similar compilation ascribed to Adelard of Bath. The first problem, therefore, to be dealt with was to establish the relation between Berachya and Adelard, to determine which of the two rescensions is more closely related to this supposed original, and whether Berachya had translated Adelard's work into Hebrew directly from the Latin original. The discrepancies, however, are so great that there cannot be a question of any direct dependence of Ber. upon Ad. In many chapters B.'s text is much more enlarged, and often of an entirely different character, nor is the same order of the chapters preserved.

The first ten chapters of Ber. correspond more or less with some of the last chapters of Adelard. Did Berachya, who lived probably in Burgundy, know any Latin at all, or did he translate from a French version which had been made from Adelard's Latin text which would explain these differences? It would have been necessary also to consider more closely the manner of Berachva's literary activity, which could be deduced from his fables. These stand in close relation to the French fables of Marie de France. Moreover, there are French glosses in this very treatise, some of which are mentioned by Dr. Gollancz. But while he is prolix in the introduction about Adelard, his life and his literary activity, scarcely any attempt is made to answer the above questions. A comparative table is merely drawn up from which the reader can learn the relation between the Latin Adelard and the Hebrew Berachva, but which leaves the problem if anything more intricate. No detailed description is given of the two MSS., of their probable age and character, except the bare statement that the copyist of the Munich MSS, was a careless scribe, and probably also an ignorant man. Nor do we find here any comparison between the language of Berachya in the present work and that of the ethical treatises. No source is given nor any parallel to the various curious conceptions of astronomy, physical, natural science, etc., contained in this dialogue. Instead of this Dr. Gollancz gives us a translation of the Latin text of Adelard, which, of course, is a very welcome addition. There is one point more which required some elucidation, viz. which of the two versions is the first and which the second, and whether both go back to the same original or whether we have to assume that Berachya did the work twice, translating two different originals, especially as there are portions in the Bodleian text which are missing in the Munich, and many of the questions in the Bodleian MS. are answered somewhat differently, but one looks in vain even for any reference to such problems. Dr. Gollancz is quite satisfied with the few remarks contained in his Introduction. The question of date has also to be considered. Is My Uncle and my Nephew older than the other works of Berachya, and in what chronological order do the various works follow one another? This is an important question, as it bears on the philological character of the book, the language of which is peculiar and often very obscure. It is a pity Dr. Gollancz should have ignored all these questions, and should have been satisfied with a bare reference to this introduction, instead of giving full notes and explanations whenever the text or the trans-Instead of the bibliographical lation demanded them. information given on p. xxii, other books should have been mentioned, such as Gerson ben Salomon's Gate of Heaven, instead of which Dr. Gollancz quotes The Wars of the Lord, the work of his son, Levi b. Gerson, evidently confusing one with the other. For astronomical information he might have referred to Isaack Israele's great astronomical work rather than to the incidental references in Yehuda Ha-Levi's Kusari.

But a greater disappointment awaits the reader who turns to the translation for the elucidation of the Hebrew text. Judged by this translation, Berachya's work is often nothing else but a mass of confused statements. It seems that the translator has often failed to grasp the real meaning of the text before him, and on some occasions, such as in chapter 19 and chapter 35 and elsewhere, sentences have remained untranslated without the reader being made aware of it. The passages are unquestionably obscure, but the translator should not have omitted to mention the fact. Not in a few passages he has clearly mistaken the original, e.g. in chapter 19, instead of translating "You see a hound running furiously in a thunderstorm and carried along the ground in excitement", it should be "You see a hound rushing along leaping furiously or sniffing the ground"; and in the same passage, instead of "seeking flight", it ought to be "in search or in flight ". Or, again, in chapter 35, whence does the author get "I loved thy heart's reflections", whilst the text means "And my thoughts were with thee", etc. Or chapter 4 of the Bodleian MS., the translation reads, "Man has the knowledge to recoil from the food he has once swallowed, that he spews it forth," whilst the real meaning of the text is, "Because a man can sicken at the sight of food he vomits that which he has swallowed." These few specimens, which can easily be multiplied, must suffice. The book is also not free from printing mistakes, such as on p. xx two mistakes in the Hebrew. Correct "boar" for "bear" on p. 73, etc. It is greatly to be regretted that a book of this kind, which might have been an important contribution to the history of the propagation among the Jews of the Middle Ages of some of the mediaeval popular law, should have been published with so little care.

Some South Indian Villages. Vol. I of Economic Studies of the University of Madras. Edited by Professor Gilbert Slater. 9½ × 6, 400 pp. Oxford Univ. Press. 1918.

This volume consists of studies of the economic situation in individual villages, carried out by students of the Madras University under the guidance of Professor Slater, who contributes an introduction and some concluding observations. It may be criticized either as an achievement or as a symptom. From the former point of view the value of the individual studies is slight; they are inevitably immature, or even crude; one can often see where the writers have gone astray, and in a few cases one realizes the extent of the injury done to young India by the perverted notions of history which have been inculcated so industriously during the last twenty years. Professor Slater's own observations are, however, of real value, especially his study of the incidence of the land revenue.

As a symptom the book has considerable interest, for it shows that in at least one Indian university the study of economics is being conducted on rational lines. We may question the objective value of the students' observations, but we cannot doubt that the students themselves have benefited greatly by the work they have done: their thoughts may not in all cases be worthy of print, but we can see that they have been made to think, and in the circumstances that is no mean achievement. Discipline of the kind indicated in these studies will in due time give India the economists she needs so much.

W. H. M.

STUDIES IN MUGHAL INDIA. By JADUNATH SARKAR. 7 × 5, 313 pp. Cambridge: Heffer. Calcutta: Sarkar & Sons. 1919.

Mughal Administration. By Jadunath Sarkar. $8 \times 5_2^1$, 152 pp. London: Luzac. 1920.

Professor Sarkar's work has been noticed so recently in this Journal that we need do little more than record the appearance of these two volumes, the first a reprint of essays previously published, but enriched by many new ones, the second a course of lectures delivered before the University of Patna. In both we find the qualities which have given the author an assured position among Indian historical workers, intelligent use of primary sources, exemplary carefulness and restraint, and a just sense of perspective. One could argue about some particular statements on minor points, but to do so would require an amount of space out of all proportion to their importance, and it will suffice to commend the books to all students of the Mughal period, and to indicate two matters in which the Lectures could be improved, anticipating that a new edition of them will in due time be required.

The first of them relates to the revenue administration. Professor Sarkar passes over this subject lightly on the ground that it has been adequately treated by European writers, but his account of Aurangzeb's system contained in the *Studies* indicates many points which have not yet been fully explained, at least, in readily accessible books, and we should

welcome a study of such matters as the rise in the standard revenue-rate from Akbar's one-third to Aurangzeb's one-half, the growth of cash-rents independent of the area cultivated in a particular year, and the method of valuing cropassessments which succeeded to Akbar's inspiration of the dihsala. Information on such points is needed in order to link up the Ain-i Akbari with the revenue-system found at work by the English in the eighteenth century.

The second suggestion is that the practical working of the administration generally might be illustrated more copiously from the contemporary observations of the English and Dutch merchants. There is some risk that the lengthy quotations from instructions given to Mogul officials may tempt readers to believe that these instructions must have been followed in practice; a better estimate of the weight actually attached to them can be framed by readers familiar with such incidents as the Khan-Khanan's excess profits levy at Dacca in 1661, or Mirza Ali Akbar's extortion at Surat a few years before.

W. H. M.

CLAVIS CUNEORUM, Part 3. By G. HOWARDY. 4 × 8, pp. 111. Leipzig: Harrassowitz. 1918.

The third part of Dr. Howardy's Clavis Cuneorum was published in 1918, eleven years after the appearance of the first part, but owing to its publication in Germany it is only recently that it has come into the hands of English Assyriologists. It is a wonderful example of patient labour and research. The Assyrian ideographs, mostly in their compounded form, have been collected, transliterated, and translated into Latin, English, and German, in so far as they were known up to the date of publication, and the whole work is a model of lucid arrangement and compactness. Unfortunately it is still incomplete, and unless the author can find assistants I do not see how it can be finished in an ordinary

lifetime. If complete it would be even more indispensable to the scholar than Brünnow's Classified List of cuneiform characters, and as it is no Assyriologist can afford to be without the three parts that have already appeared. Dr. Howardy, who is a Danish clergyman, has managed to find time in the midst of his clerical labours to ransack and examine the voluminous and widely scattered literature that has been published of late years on Assyrian philology and script; up to the beginning of the War, in fact, I can find no instance of omissions, and the interpretation of the Assyrian words is thoroughly up to date.

A. H. SAYCE.

Zum Babylonischen Neujahrsfest II. By H. Zimmern. $14 \times 6\frac{1}{2}$, 250 pp. Leipzig: Trübner. 1918.

Among the cuneiform documents found by the German excavators at Kalah Shergat, the ancient Assur, some remarkable texts have been discovered which are of unusual importance for the theologians. One of them has been transliterated and translated by Professor Zimmern, together with an introduction and notes, and it is likely to excite a considerable amount of interest, if not of perturbation, in theological circles. It comes from the library of Assur, which was formed in the ninth century B.C., or perhaps earlier, but it is a copy of a much older Babylonian work.

It contains the stage-directions for a sort of miracle-play which was performed in the temple of Bel-Merodach at Babylon every New Year's Day. Bel was bound and brought before the tribunal which awaits mankind on the bank of the river of death. After being scourged or "wounded" he was condemned to death and led away to the prison-house of the cosmic "mountain". Along with him a malefactor was also led away to execution, while a second malefactor, if Professor Zimmern's translation is correct, was released. After the god had thus "descended into the prison-house, away from

the sun and the light", the city was plunged in confusion (ittapalkat), while the clothes were stripped from the dead body of the god and laid before the divine queen of Erech. After this a goddess washed away "the blood of the heart", which had flowed from a wound in the side. The tomb or prison-house of Bel was now watched by a "son of Assur", his priestly followers wept and lamented for him, and a goddess sought his tomb. But eventually he rose again from the dead, and thus became the saviour who in the language of the early Sumerian hymns "raises the dead to life".

This extraordinary text is supplemented by one which was published by Dr. Pinches in the Proceedings of the Society of Biblical Archæology as far back as 1908, but is apparently unknown to Professor Zimmern. The text is exceedingly fragmentary, and at the time of publication it was impossible to understand it, and therefore to translate it satisfactorily. In the light of the tablet from Assur, however, it now becomes clear. It gives us, in fact, the wording of the miracle-play. We are told how, after the fetters of Bel Merodach had been made fast, "he descended into hell" (iriddi kisukkis), and there "the spirits who were in prison" (ilâni tsabtutu) "rejoiced to see him". The words of St. Peter (1 Pet. iii, 19), which have been quoted from some apocryphal writing, are a literal translation of the cuneiform text, and the preaching to the spirits is explained by the address of Merodach to Nergal and Enme-sarra which follows his entrance into Hades.

While Bel was in the prison-house of the tomb the beginning of the Creation Epic was recited by his followers at Babylon. The sixth tablet of the epic, relating to the creation of man, has now been recovered from one of the Assur tablets, and in this there is probably a reference to the descent of Bel into the underworld. Mankind, it is said, grew rebellious after their creation; the sanctuaries of the gods were destroyed and their worship neglected. Then comes a line which Professor Barton translates: "making a pit as a tomb in

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full splendour he (i.e. Bel-Merodach) went down into it ", though the translation seems to me somewhat difficult to defend. The two next lines, however, are clear: "who (i.e. Merodach) with his weapon, the deluge (abubu), took captive the wicked, and saved from destruction the gods his fathers." It is noteworthy that the passage in the Epistle of St. Peter which mentions the descent into hell couples with it a reference to the deluge.

A. H. SAYCE.

HITTITE SEALS, WITH PARTICULAR REFERENCE TO THE ASHMOLEAN COLLECTION. By D. G. HOGARTH. 13×9 , $180~\rm pp$. Oxford: Clarendon Press. 1920.

The Ashmolean Museum at Oxford contains by far the largest and most important collection of Hittite seals in the world, and it is therefore fitting that the first scientific attempt to classify and explain them should be made by its learned and versatile Keeper. Unfortunately the War has delayed the publication of the book. It was already in the printers' hands in 1915, and since then much has occurred in the archæological as well as in the political world. Mr. Hogarth tells us that the numerous Hittite cylinders and stamp-seals added to the Ashmolean Collection since 1914 have increased it by more than fifty per cent, while the publication of so many of the Boghaz Keui and Assur cuneiform texts by the Berlin scholars has given us new and revolutionary views as regards the early history and art of Asia Minor. It is not surprising, therefore, that the author is contemplating the publication of a supplementary study.

But he has prepared the way for this in the present work, which is a very able and courageous endeavour to place the study of the so-called Hittite seals upon a scientific basis. The main outlines of the study have, I believe, been sketched in it once and for all; but much remains to be done, not only in the way of enlargement, but also of modification or correction

of the details, and already our new knowledge necessitates both addition and correction.

"Hittite" seals include the seals of Northern Syria, together with all others of a cognate character. Indeed, it is still impossible to distinguish in many cases between what belongs to Asia Minor and what emanates from Northern Syria, or, rather, from the Semitic element in that part of the world. The recent discovery of M. Legrain of a missing portion of the Nippur dynastic tablets in the Philadelphia Museum has shown that as far back as the fourth dynasty before that of Akkad Babylonia was already governed by a Semitic dynasty of kings from the North Syrian city of Mari, 3 kilometres from the modern Dêr ez-Zor, and that the second dynasty before it came from Khawazi, which I should identify with the Biblical Uz. On the other hand, the Babylonian occupation of Eastern Asia Minor has now been carried back long before the age of the third dynasty of Ur (2400 B.C.), the legendary account of the campaign of Sargon of Akkad, of which I gave a translation in the Proceedings of the Society of Biblical Archeology in 1915, having now been confirmed by a contemporaneous document found by Dr. Forrer among the Boghaz Keui tablets. At that early date Cappadocia was already in the enjoyment of Babylonian culture.

All this makes it necessary that the seal-impressions on the Kara Eyuk or Cappadocian tablets, some hundreds of which are now in the course of examination, should be carefully studied and compared A large proportion of them are purely Babylonian, and reproduce the familiar scenes of the period of the third dynasty of Ur. But there are many others which are of Asianic origin. Among them are representations of chariots and carts drawn by horses, as well as of acrobatic performances in the bull-ring, closely resembling the scenes depicted by the Kretan artists. In view of Dr. Forrer's discovery that Sargon II, the High Priest of Assur in 2180 B.C., received tribute from the island of Kaptara or Krete, the fact opens up many possibilities. Indeed, one of the Assur

tablets lately published (Keilschrifttexte aus Assur, 35, 1, No. 92, 41) informs us that Kaptara "beyond the Upper Sea" of the Mediterranean was the western boundary of the Empire of Sargon I of Akkad.

Mr. Hogarth divides his seals between four periods: (1) the Primitive before 1500 B.C., (2) the Cappadocian-Hittite or Hattic to 1200 B.C., (3) the Moschian-Hittite to 1000 B.C., and (4) the Moschian-Assyrian to 600 B.C. His evidence for this classification is largely derived from the excavations at Carchemish, and consequently will doubtless have to be modified when scientific excavation becomes possible in Asia Minor. But in the main I believe it will stand the test of future research. Instead of Moschian, however, the term Kaskian would be preferable, since I find that the earlier princes of Carchemish call their followers Kaskians, not Moschians, and trace their descent from the people of Melitene and the family of Mita or Midas at Tyana. It is true that they also claim rule over the Miskayi or Moschians, but the latter may have been a conquered nation. It is noteworthy that Tiglath-pileser I expressly states that the "soldiers" of Carchemish were Kaskians.

I believe also that Mr. Hogarth is right in tracing a certain class of seals to Cilicia. And it is possible that the semibulæ have the same origin. As a whole, however, what Mr. Hogarth calls "stamp-seals" originated in Asia Minor, where they developed out of the button-seal which spread through the Mediterranean into Egypt, and there, in the later days of the Old Empire, superseded the seal-cylinder of Babylonia. Mr. Hogarth's "hammer-seal" was at the outset a combination of the cylinder and the stamp-seal. The "bullæ" of which the famous "boss" of Tarkondemos is an example have been proved by a silver one in my possession to have been really seals, the flat side of which was used for stamping papyrus and the convex side for stamping clay. In the Hittite hieroglyphic script a picture of a bulla with its handle or string denotes the verb ar, "to write," just as the picture

of the "hammer" seal denotes a seal in general (as in Nos. 194, 315).

Among the inscribed seals published by Mr. Hogarth, No. 191, discovered at Tamassos in Cyprus, contains the same name (Khulminius) as No. 330, discovered at Deve Huyuk, near Carchemish; a similar name (Khulminiân) is found on No. 326. According to a Boghaz Keui tablet, the two names are derived from that of a goddess who corresponded with the Babylonian Ilbaba. The Hittite characters on No. 181 read. "The life-stone (NA-ZI-QI in the Boghaz Keui texts) of Iskhuaris"; the inscription on No. 190 in the copy (p. 37) has been turned upside down. The inscription on the scaraboid No. 202 is an attempt to represent the Egyptian Si-Amon or Amensis, the heraldic lions on the back being copied from similar Egyptian pictures of the eighteenth and nineteenth dynasties. What Mr. Hogarth terms bulls' eyes circlets are found on scarabs of Thothmes III and other kings of the eighteenth dynasty, and were originally intended to denote the sun.

It only remains to add that the "get up" of the book is worthy of the traditions of the Clarendon Press, that the photographs are admirable, and that the foundations of a scientific knowledge of the seals of Western Asia have been laid in it once for all.

A. H. SAYCE.

Extracts and Documents relating to Maratha History. Vol. I: Siva Chhatrapati. By Surendra Nath Sen, M.A. $9\frac{1}{2}\times 6$, 150 pp. Calcutta: 1920.

The Calcutta University and Mr. Sen deserve to be congratulated on the publication of this volume. It is a revised translation, with notes and appendices, of a famous bakhar, or chronicle, by Anant Sabhāsad, who was a servant of Sivaji's son Rajarām. Mr. Sen's translation reads well, and is, no

doubt, correct. His notes, too, are good, though perhaps he is unnecessarily sarcastic about the works of Grant-Duff and Khāfī Khān. It is the fashion nowadays to disparage Khāfi Khān and to speak of him as a late and prejudiced writer. Yet he was a contemporary of Aurangzeb, and he has written generously of Sivaji's good conduct to female captives and his reverence for the Koran. His history was not published till fifty-two years after Sivaji's death, but Mr. Morley, Colonel Lees, and Professor Dowson are all agreed that it was written much earlier. The point is discussed by Lees in his Materials for the History of India, Hertford, 1868, and by Dowson in the seventh volume of Elliot's History of India. Whether the box, sinduq, that Khāfī K. speaks of was (as I am inclined to think) a cabinet, or only a metaphor for the author's memory, there can be no reasonable doubt that Khāfī Khān was in the habit of keeping diaries soon after he attained maturity. Many of his statements are supported by Sabhāsad, the only chronicler, as Mr. Sen calls him, whose work can claim to be contemporary. Sabhāsad was not an independent writer; he was the servant of Siv's son and wrote for his master, who, apparently, was very ignorant of his father's history. But Sabhāsad wrote before the full development of the Sivaji legend, and before native writers had the fear of Western sentiments about the baseness of assassinations before their eyes, and so he told no lies about the deaths of the two brothers Chandar Rav and Suryaji Rav. His withers were unwrung just as were those of the old Greeks who hymnized Harmodius and Aristogeiton (see Mr. Sen's note on p. 6 and the remarks of Professor Sarkar). Sivaji was a patriot, and had several heroic attributes, and we may say of him, as Johnson said of Cromwell, that he wanted nothing to raise him to heroic excellence but virtue. But it is as absurd to call him a saint as, to use Swinburne's phrase, it is to regard Mary Queen of Scots as a stingless creature. Sivaji's favourite goddess was Bhowani, that is the goddess of the Thags, and he claimed that she appeared

to him in a dream the night before the nurder and promised to stand by him. "At your hands," she said, "I shall get Afzal killed. I grant you success."

The two startling events in Sivaji's career are his murder of Afzal and his son's escape from Agra in bhanghies of sweetmeats. I am sorry to find that the veteran historian Professor Jadu Nath Sarkar accepts the story that Afzal was the aggressor, and thinks that Sivaji acted in self-defence. There is no evidence for this, for no one was present except the two men, Afzal and Sivaji, and Sivaji destroyed the evidence against himself by stabbing Afzal, and, so far as I know, never published to Bijapur or the world any explanation of what had occurred. All the probabilities are against Afzal's being the assailant. He was an elderly man and so feeble that he had to move about in a litter. Moreover, he was only a servant, and his mission was to bring Sivaji to court. He had no authority to kill him and no motive for doing so. Simple-minded Sabhāsad admits this when he tells us at p. 9 that Sivaji was regarded at Bijapur as so formidable that no one would march against him till at last the Vizier said, "What is Sivaji? I will bring him alive, a prisoner, without even getting off my horse (? palanquin)." Jadu Nath Sarkar says (History of Aurangzib, IV, p. 38, note) that Khāfī K. says that both Afzal and Sivaji came to the interview unarmed, and he gives Khāfī K., II, 117, as the authority for this statement. But Khāfī K. in the place mentioned says exactly the opposite as regards Sivaji. He says, line 8, Sivaji had a dagger (bichūā) up his sleeve, and plunged it into Afzal's belly. Probably this bichūā, literally scorpion, was the bagnaq, or tiger's claws, of which there is now a specimen in the Indian Section of the Victoria and Albert Museum, South Kensington.

Even if Khāfī K.'s authority were rejected on the ground of the lateness of his book, there is another Muhammadan historian who tells us of Afzal's assassination in a book composed several years before Sabhāsad's chronicle was written

(see 'Ālamgīrnāma of Muh. Kāzim, Bib. Ind. ed., p. 577). It is customary for Hindu writers to extol Sivaji's courage and to represent him as opposing the whole Moghul Empire. But the Pratapgarh incident occurred in the early days of Sivaji, and belongs to a petty war between Sivaji and the King of Bijapur. Aurangzeb had nothing to do with it, and there is no reason to suppose that Afzal was accompanied by a force of twelve thousand cavalry.

H. BEVERIDGE.

IBN MUYASSAR. ANNALES D'ÉGYPTE (LES KHALIFES FÂŢIMIDES). Texte Arabe, édité par M. HENRI MASSÉ. 15 × 11, 300 pp. Le Caire. 1919. [Publications de l'Institut Français d'Archéologie Orientale.]

This is a history of Egypt under Fāṭimid Caliphs, extending (with lacunæ comprising most of the reign of al-Ḥākim and the whole of that of al-Ṭāhir) from the year 362 (al-Mu'izz) to 553 (al-Fā'iz). According to the colophon of the unique manuscript in the Bibliothèque Nationale, it is an extract made by al-Maqrīzī (died 845) from the chronicle of Ibn Muyassar (died 677), which is said to have been a continuation of the history of al-Musabbihī (died 420). The problems arising from this ascription are discussed by M. Massé in his introduction.

The editor states that he was engaged on this work at the outbreak of the War, and that it was only after an interruption of four years that he was able to complete it. He admits "le caractère hâtif de l'établissement du texte", and asks the reader to regard the book as "le travail intermittent d'un soldat". If the text is not free from evidences of haste, the editor has made amends by providing his edition with a valuable series of accessories. In addition to a "Sommaire Chronologique" there are no less than five indexes, viz.: I, Index Historique (personal names, etc.); II, Index Géographique; III, Édifices, Monuments et Quartiers;

IV. Index Administratif (official titles, etc.); V, Ouvrages Cités. The Index Historique is not in all respects satisfactory. When the text gives a personal name with the kunyah prefixed, it is the kunyah that M. Massé takes into account for purposes will be found ابوالفتح يانس الرومي will be among the names beginning with the letter is, and there is not even a cross-reference under يانس, which is a much more important part of the name than the kunyah. The kunyah, in fact, is a part of the name that M. Massé might very well have disregarded. Under al-Husain ibn Jauhar references are given to p. 55, l. 22, and p. 56, l. 4; later on under Abū 'Abdallāh al-Ḥusain ibn Jauhar the only reference is to p. 54, l. 3. Now those for whose benefit indexes are compiled have a right to expect that all such references to passages in which a single person is mentioned will be grouped in a single place, or, at least, that cross-references will be given to any other headings under which supplementary information will be found. Otherwise there is a danger that the primary object of an index may to some extent be defeated.

In establishing the text M. Massé has had to depend on a single manuscript, which, as we learn from the critical notes, is capable of giving readings like (p. 55, l. 15) and (p. 18, l. 1). Naturally in such circumstances the reconstruction of the text presents difficulties, and the editor's emendations do not remove all the obscurities. The following remarks and suggestions will, it is hoped, be of use to readers of the book:-

Page 4, line 16: بين تولية. p. 6, l. 16: بين تولية. p. 6, l. 17: فنسب المادة (and asserted their relationship to). p. 7, l. 4: مَلَكَ is correct. p. 8, l. 8: وانكفّ p. 10, l. 16: أَنْ تَرَى (Ma'add has become master of the situation). p. 11, l. 9: وشُتِتَ p. 12, l. 8: شَلَاء p. 13, l. 6: اسباب المادة (with Magrīzī). p. 14, l. 8: اسباب المادة المادة

something) is very common in Ibn Iyas, cf. Bulaq ed. (1311), i, 44 ult., 67 ult., p. 124, 1. 18, etc., etc. p. 15, l. 7: need not be altered; ثالث عشرى محرم ordinals of this type are common in late Arabic, cf. Ibn Iyas, i, فى يوم : iii, p. 77, l. 5 , في ثالث عشرى شوال .145 so also عنهما جميعًا : 14: السبت عشريه (so also p. 16, 1. 2). p. 18, 1. 8: خُربَ بسببها (was ruined in consequence of it). p. 21, 1.3: بقطعه . p. 25, 1.7: تحرّبانها (its Bedouin). The عربان of the عربان was for centuries one of the plagues of Egypt. p. 30, l. 18, بالشآم (metre). p. 31, ودفعةً . p. 32, l. 14 : فدفعةً (once). p 32, l. 15, حِدَةٍ (then a second time). p. 32, l. 16: عُالِيَة (a third time). p. 33, 1. 10: فزيد . p. 33, 1. 20 . المستنصر . p. 34, 1. 8: p. 36, ll. 2-6: these verses are رُثِينَ p. 36, ll. 2-6: these verses are given in a more correct form in Abū'l-Maḥāsin (ed Popper), ii, 188. p. 36, 13: the emendation proposed is unmetrical. Read ? : p. 47, l. 15 . p. 39, l. 9 . كثرةً : p. 39, l. 9 . وقتلوا [اهل] المبلد : p. 39, l. 4 . انصراف العساكر : cf. Qur'an, xx, 32. p. 48, 1. 19 وآشكو his قدماد . في عَمّاريته : 9. 51, 1. 8 بيتا (with MS.). p. 51, 1. 8 تحرّك cf. p. 44, l. 8 وقِمد : p. 54, l. 4 وقِمد : p. 54, l. 4 رمِلوْ . p. 57, l. 21 : الْخَنتَه : p. 58, l. 19 : وقاد (i e. وقاد MS. reading, is correct. p. 59, 1. 16: أُخْرَمُ بالصلاة , cf. Dozy. فقرأ المأمون عنه ٰ بقية السورة : p. 59, 1. 19 . وأُرْتِجَ : p. 59, 1. 19 (al-M. read the remainder of the verse for him). p. 62, l. 16: ? لرسل a corruption of الدوك p. 63, 1. 3: Is p. 63 ult.: مُصافّ (pitched battle). p. 64, 1. 14: وسَلِما p. 65, 1. 14: وأحوالهم : p. 65, 1. 17 وأحوالهم p. 67, 1. 10: . p. 72, 1. 16 : p. 68, 1. 12 وقَدِمَ : p. 72, 1. 16 : بغيرها . p. 79, . بِأَجْمَعِيْمٌ : p. 80, 1. 5 . وانقانهم : p. 79, 1. 17 . يُصْغ : 1. 2 p. 81, 1. 14: سليمانكم (your Solomon). p. 82, 1. 5: جمعه . p. 82, l. 11 : عَلَى مَنْ جا يَظْلُبُ رَفْدَكُم p. 82, l. 12 : رما على (metre!). p. 83, l. 14: أخر ما على the MS. reading, (= "wacant") is correct, ef. Dozy. p. 85, l. 11: مثولهم . p. 85, l. 19: ويُجيزهم . p. 94, l. 22: مُثولهم . p. 95, l. 11: فدَوَّخَتُ . p. 97, l. 17: توسعةً . p. 98, l. 2:

C. A. STOREY.

MÉLANGES D'HISTOIRE ET DE GÉOGRAPHIE ORIENTALE. Tome 2. By Henri Cordier, Membre de l'Institut, Professeur à l'École des Langues Orientales. 9\(\frac{3}{4}\times 6\frac{1}{4}\), 322 pp. Paris: Maisonneuve & Fils. 1920.

This fine volume of 322 pages is a successor to a previous one published in 1914 from the pen of the same authoritative writer. The present collection comprises nineteen essays, in the main reviews and addresses, now brought together by M. Cordier from the various Journals and Comptes Rendues in which they first appeared, and bearing dates ranging from 1902 to 1919. The list of the titles of these articles will best indicate the wide range of these Mélanges. They are, in order: "Central and Eastern Asia and Chinese Studies," "The Chinese of Turgot," "Marco Polo's Itinerary in Persia," "The Situation in China" (written in 1912), "Delhi," "Islam in China," "the Quest of a N.W. and N.E. Passage to Asia" (an introduction of three pages to a lecture by M. Rabot), "Tibet, China, and England," "Excavations in Central Asia" (two papers, one of 1910 and a second of 1914), "The Imperial Chinese Maritime Customs" (also two papers, dated respectively 1906 and 1902-I have not read these), "Albuquerque," "Général de Beylié," "The Mongol Invasion of the Middle Ages," "Sculpture in Stone in China," "Baghdad," "Buddhist Art," and "Turks and Bulgars".

In all these essays we enjoy the ripe fruit of Professor Cordier's wide reading and exceptionally exact and well-digested scholarship. And the result is an ensemble of ordered knowledge and matured judgments on the often obscure and difficult topics examined, so that what the reader may have opened from curiosity or duty he is likely to close with the resolve that this volume shall, or the wish that it could (according as the income tax vampire and the ratecollecting horse-leech may have treated him), repose for frequent reference upon his bookshelves. And for that reason, and because the names and dates of little-known persons and unfamiliar places abound in it, it would have added to the value of this "medley" if it terminated with an index. And I may end these general remarks by expressing a sense of grateful appreciation of the very clear and, as it were, resonant presentation of historical events and processes which marks Professor Cordier's writing. It can hardly have been easy to attain this desirable clarity, one may suppose, with some of the subjects treated.

Take, for instance, the racial relations and ethnic movements—obscure and but partly ascertained or explained at best—that evolved their intricate and often sinister dramas in inner Asia from the third century B.C. to the fifteenth of our era. It is a kind of nightmare jazz-dance of Huns and Yueh-chih, Turks, Sakas, Ephthalites, Uigurs, and Mongols, conquering, expelling, massacring, mixing, vanishing, and now and again exploding in such human detonations as Attila, Tamerlane, and Genghis Khan. Nowhere, I believe, are these dim but portentous energies more clearly appreciated and outlined than in pages 8 to 11 of M. Cordier's introductory paper, an address delivered at the Sorbonne in 1908, and in that on the "Mongol Invasion of the Middle Ages".

So, too, with the paper contributed in 1910 to the Revue Hebdomadaire on "Tibet, China, and England". It opens with a geographical study of that forbidding, and long forbidden land, embodying also its administrative structure (with, of course, many of those repellent and monstrous

Tibetan names, on which we might surmise Swift had based his Brobdingnag and Houyhnhnms). To this succeeds a most skilfully compressed narrative of the internal and external history of the vast realm, which develops at the end into an account of the diplomatic negotiations between China, Tibet, and Great Britain, and of the Younghusband expedition to Lhassa of 1904. M. Cordier is a friend of this country, but occasionally, as in this instance, a candid one. The more weighty, therefore, the concluding paragraph of this most valuable contribution. He thinks that the British expedition into Tibet will have had one result only—the consolidation of Chinese power in that country. The condition of India, he observes, does not permit us to-day to launch into risky adventures. The Japanese victories have had the most lively repercussion among the Hindus, "comme chez les autres peuples de l'Asie dont les jaunes désirent expulser leurs maîtres temporaires."

From these, and from all the essays in the *Mélanges*, the reader may rise with that comforting assurance that what Professor Cordier relates or describes as historical and geographical truth is indeed the net result of all research published up to the date when he summed it up, that it has been well scrutinized, long pondered, and judiciously expressed. If anyone regards that as a modest achievement, I venture the opinion that it demands a lifetime's labour to accomplish, and that M. Cordier has had to buy his success at that price.

Space remains only for a few observations on one further essay in the volume, that headed "L'Art Bouddhique", a review of Chavannes' La Sculpture Bouddhique, and Dr. and Mrs. Thomas' translation of Foucher's The Beginnings of Buddhist Art.

When in the second part of M. Cordier's careful paper he comes to consider with M. Foucher the very interesting subject of the origin of Buddhist art, he remarks that what characterizes the ancient sculptures is that they represent

the life of Buddha without Buddha, and that this is due not to incapacity, but to tradition and custom. "What is the cause of this abstention?" he asks, and observes that the problem is delicate, but hardly seems resolvable. His subsequent reflections are valuable, but I may perhaps draw attention to the treatment of this point by an Italian authority, Alessandro della Seta, whose masterly volume has been rendered into admirable English by Miss Marion Harrison under the title of Religion and Art. For della Seta appears to me rem acu tetigisse, and to have found a sound and satisfying solution of the enigma. I venture to cite the pertinent passage as rendered in translation on pp. 305-6 of the English edition.

"Thus the date, forms, and character of Buddhist art," we read, "furnish proof of its Greek origin, which also accounts for certain of its distinctive features. There must have been a struggle with the tendency towards the symbolic representation of Buddha.

"Whilst in the art of the Gândhâra school the scenes concerning the incarnations of Buddha represent the reformer as a real figure, in the art of Middle India Buddha in these same scenes is represented by a symbol. A historical and narrative art which depicts nothing but the life of a single individual, and from those scenes banishes the individual to whom it owes its existence, an art which subjects itself to this ruthless self-mutilation exhibits remarkable inconsistency. But this inconsistency is explained by the natural aversion from figured forms underlying the spirit of the Buddhist doctrines. Contact with the civilization and art of Greece had led the Gândhâra Buddhists to conceal this aversion, for they saw in art a powerful means of propaganda and represented Buddha under his real aspect, which Asoka in his monuments had not yet dared to do. But to the Buddhists of Northern India, the cradle of the creed, such historical narrative representation must have appeared in the light of a crime against the purity of the

doctrine; to assign a definite form to the figure of one who had denied the absolute value of all forms in the sphere of phenomena must have seemed the greatest insult to the spirit of his teaching. But the help offered by this art was too powerful to be despised, and the Buddhism of Middle India hoped to preserve its orthodoxy by permitting figured representation of the life of Buddha, but banishing the figure of the founder himself. For this reason the sculptured forms of Buddha-Gayâ, Barhut, and Sâñtshî appear headless. But Buddhists had hoped in vain thus to preserve the antiimage tendency; the thin end of the wedge had been inserted, and shortly afterwards they were forced to admit the figure of Buddha, and, moreover, under the classical aspect of the Gândhâra school. The sculpture of Amarâvatî illustrates the final stage of this last concession. The paintings of Ajantâ, executed a few centuries later, show how the tradition, by that time firmly established, had been maintained.

"This struggle would never have taken place if Buddhist art had been the spontaneous product of religious conception, for it would either have avoided dealing with the incarnations of Buddha or it would have permitted representations of his figure. The similar phenomenon presented by some specimens of Mohammedan art, which represents the deeds of sacred persons, but substitutes ciphers for the faces of these individuals, affords further proof of the difficulties with which only the religions which received their art from an alien civilization had to contend."

L. C. HOPKINS.

Colloquial Arabic. Shuwa Dialect of Bornu, Nigeria, and of the region of Lake Chad. Grammar and Vocabulary, with some proverbs and songs. By G. T. Lethem, M.A., I.L.B., Assistant District Officer, Political Department, Nigeria. 6 × 4, pp. viii, 487. Published for the Government of Nigeria by the Crown Agents for the Colonies. London: 1920.

Shuwa is the westernmost of the Arabic dialects of the Sudan. The Shuwa fall into principal groups of Arab tribes which have settled in Bornu within the last three hundred years. Their speech resembles that of their Afab neighbours to the east, of which a grammar was published in 1913 by Monsieur H. Carbou. Mr. Lethem's book is intended primarily for those who wish to speak Shuwa. It is arranged accordingly, and some exercises are provided for the beginner, who will probably not regret that, on the ground of expense, Latin type has been used almost throughout. At the same time, the book constitutes a full and careful study of the dialect, which does not appear to have been described in detail before, a study, moreover, by one who evidently has a competent knowledge of Arabic.

The English-Arabic vocabulary at the end of the book must contain several thousand native words and expressions. So large a collection is a notable achievement. The bulk of the words are Arabic. Those derived from Kanuri and Hausa are distinguished and the number is comparatively few. About as many, or perhaps more, are marked as being of unknown origin. Some of these look as if they had been drawn from African languages; but a fair proportion are Arabic, used in the original form and sense. Some of the Arabic words in the dialect have had their meanings extended. Permutations of radicals occur now and then.

The grammar is set out clearly and fully, though perhaps it would have been well to have given a little more prominence to the feminine ta, which seems only to be alluded to in a note in a place where it may easily escape attention, and to have given the full conjugation of all the weak verbs which are used as examples. Some of the grammatical features will be of interest to philologists. Such, for instance, are the transmutation of j into d and d into j, of which there are a few examples; and the feminine plural forms used for the pronouns and for verbs; the verbal forms of alkattab, alkatab, parallel with the ordinary V and VI forms, and gamm in the perfect running parallel with gam (rise).

There are many other peculiarities well worth a full

examination; but on the whole the departure from standard in grammar as in vocabulary is remarkably small considering how long the Shuwa have been settled in the midst of a large alien population.

The proverbs and songs, besides being accompanied by translations, are explained in a way that makes them entertaining as well as instructive, though it must be confessed that certain obscurities remain. The allusion to Abu Zaid el Hilâlî has not been understood by the author.

These short pieces give an idea of the people, about whom also some information is contained in the introduction.

Mr. Lethem acknowledges indebtedness as regards the grammar to Mr. G. T. F. Tomlinson, who had partially completed a grammar and gave up all his material for incorporation. Thanks are due to Mr. Lethem for a valuable addition to our knowledge of Arabic dialects, a result of his personal observations, and one may hope for more.

A. R. G.

HISTORY OF THE ARMENIANS IN INDIA. By Mesrovb J. Seth. $7\frac{1}{5} \times 4\frac{9}{10}$, pp. xxii and 190+8, cloth. Calcutta: published by the Author at 11 Wellesley Square, London. 1915.

Mr. Seth's book is a peculiarly interesting historical compilation, including the preface, extending over 212 closely printed small 8vo pages, useful both to the students of the general history of India and to those who are desirous to know who the Armenians are and what is their place in history. The author, who is well versed in classical Armenian, is an enthusiastic lover of the history of the ancient and worthy nation to whom he belongs, and has been indefatigable in tracing the records of the Armenian mercantile communities settled in the most important trading centres in India. The work was brought out at Calcutta towards the end of the year 1895, and either by modesty or some oversight, it is quite

recently that its distinguished author has thought of presenting a copy to the library of the Royal Asiatic Society in London.

While the author was engaged upon putting his materials together (that is, about a year before its publication), Mr. W. E. Gladstone, whom he regarded as "Armenia's truest friend", had received an Anglo-Armenian deputation at Hawarden, his country home, on the anniversary of his eighty-fifth birthday, December 29, 1894, and in reply to their address made one of his most impressive, soul-stirring speeches in reprobation of the massacres perpetrated on the Armenians in the Sassun district—the ancient Taron. In a passagé of this speech, which the author quotes in the preface of his work, Mr. Gladstone said that "the intelligence which had reached him tended strongly to a conclusion to the general effect that the outrages and scenes and abominations of 1876 in Bulgaria had been repeated in 1894 in Armenia, and after carefully considering the report it was time that one general shout of execration, not of men, but of deeds, one general shout of execration directed against deeds of wickedness, should rise from outraged humanity, and should force itself into the ears of the Sultan of Turkey and make him sensible, if anything could make him sensible, of the madness of such a course".

On reading these solemn and well-weighed words of the high-souled and venerable English statesman, who had always taken the forefront in the battle for liberty and justice, the young author decided to respectfully dedicate his work to him. In the meantime an inquiry into the massacres had been held at Mush, and the celebrated Memorandum of Reforms, dated May 11, 1895, had been agreed upon by the Great Powers, and handed in to the Sublime Porte; and yet, in spite of his "word of honour", given by the Sultan Abdul Hamid, that he would personally see the necessary reforms carried out in Armenia, the persecution, massacre, and spoliation of the Armenian nation had not ceased. So Mr. Gladstone, on reading the words of the dedication, in which he is described

as "the veteran statesman whose strongly expressed sympathy for oppressed Armenians in Turkey has endeared him to every Armenian throughout the world", sent to the author, Mr. Mesrovb J. Seth, a letter of acknowledgment, in which the following emphatic words occur:—

"I continue to regard with acute pain and shame the triumph of wickedness in Turkey over a whole civilized and Christian world. I know of no similar disgrace upon record.

"The only and limited mitigation of their feelings is found in deep reverence for all those Armenians who have preferred their faith to their life."

If all British and foreign statesmen and legislatures had been inspired by these sentiments of one of Britain's greatest and noblest sons, had as freely given expression to their feelings and acted upon them, there is no doubt that the Armenian nation would, in the next twenty-five years, have been spared additional cruel losses and vicissitudes; and the Turks themselves would, each time they were left to their own devices, have been prevented from the ignominious and barbarous part they played as a government and as a quasitheocratic community in which their ideals of supremacy made havoc of the moral and material interests of the most capable, energetic, enterprising, and pushing race in the Ottoman Empire.

The author describes the sources of the materials for his history, and how he was led to make researches by studying the inscriptions in classical Armenian tombstones in the national burying grounds of the community at Calcutta, Chinsurah, Agra, Gwalior, Surat, Bombay, Masulipatan, Madras, Deccah, Syedabad, Patna, and further on ten other centres of Armenian commerce. This formidable list of places shows how ubiquitous must the Armenian traders have been at one time in India, and how widespread were their mercantile operations.

He makes handsome acknowledgments for the help he received from Professor C. R. Wilson, M.A., Secretary of

the Asiatic Society of Bengal, and mentions his indebtedness to the pages of William Bolt's Considerations on Indian Affairs, 1772, London.

He appropriately begins his history of the Armenians in India by giving a sketch of Armenian tradition as handed down from antiquity and continued to modern times. erroneous idea disseminated by more than one modern English writer that the Armenians are a religious sect, or a merely commercial community, raises his indignation, as it has raised the ire of many of his compatriots, "on account of the cynicism lying underneath that idea." He is at pains to show what every reader of the Holy Bible ought to know, that the ancestral and primitive home of the Armenians is the land of Ararat, that descended from the Arvan stock their nation dates right back to the year 2111 B.C., when Haik, the son of Togormah, of the family of Japhet, killed in battle Belus of Assyria, and became the chief ancestor and founder of the Armenian nation, who to this day call themselves after his name and their country Haïasdan, i.e. the land of the Haik. The author shows by means of a genealogical table, based upon Genesis x, 2-3, and xi, 10-26, that Abraham came about three hundred years after Haik. Passing on, he mentions every passage in the Bible which has reference to Armenia.

Of Tigranes II, 93-39 B.C., of the dynasty of the Arsacidæ, who ruled in Armenia from 149 B.C. to A.D. 428, that is to say, for 577 years, the Roman general Sucullus wrote: "It is but a few days' journey from the country of Gabiri or Sebastia (the modern Sivas) into Armenia, where Tigranes, king of kings, is seated surrounded with that power which has wrested Asia from the Parthians, which carries Grecian colonies into Media, subdues Syria and Palestine."

Having quoted these words, the author could now add that the mandate for the Holy Land has been practically granted to Great Britain, and that for Syria Englishmen and Frenchmen might bear in mind that both these historic regions at one time formed part of the dominions of an Armenian Empire. He further quotes from Cicero, who, referring to Tigranes II, said that "he made the Republic of Rome tremble before the prowess of his arms".

Then we have a brief summary of the history of Armenia from A.D. 428, and mention of the successful war waged against the Persian king of kings and his Zoroastrian chief priests for religious liberty and Christian independence, an event which the Armenians look upon as the religious and political rebirth of their nation just after they had made an alphabet for themselves and translated the Scriptures into the idiom of Ararat. After referring to the invasion of Armenia by the Saracens under Abdur-Rahman and the persecutions the Armenians endured at the hands of Arab Emirs or Governors, he describes the establishment of the Armenian kingdom in the year A.D. 859, under Prince Ashod of the Bagradite family, who made the city of Ani near Kars and whose dynasty ruled in Armenia Major upwards of two centuries, and under whom the Armenians enjoyed freedom and made very remarkable progress in the arts of civilization. He then describes how Ruben, a scion of the Bagradite dynasty, when the kingdom in Upper Armenia came to an end, founded the principality of Lesser Armenia and Cilicia, which eventually became a kingdom, and how this kingdom gave hospitality to the Crusaders on their way through Asia Minor for Palestine and entered into commercial relations with Venice and other European states.

Tracing the commercial relations of Armenia with India to a remote past, he says that, "From the days of Vasco de Gama, the Armenians carried on a prosperous trade with India by the land route via Persia." He dates the influx of the Armenians into India from the palmy days of the Mogul Empire, and narrates the circumstances in which Akbar the Great built a church for them for Christian worship at Agra, his capital, in the year 1562. It speaks well for their character that wherever the Armenian merchants settled

in the principal commercial centres of India, they built themselves a church and provided it with a burial ground for their dead. Owing to this pious practice they both made provision for their religious needs and kept up their national tradition and identity in foreign lands. If as traders and merchants they did not leave a connected record of their history, they left many sepultural monuments by which their movements could be traced. And it was reserved to the zeal of Mr. Mesrovb J. Seth to utilize them for this history.

In his deliberate opinion the downfall of the Mogul Empire, followed by anarchy and troublous times, was the death-knell of the commercial pursuits of the Armenians. In Agra, Akbar's great capital, he found in the old cemetery of the Armenians nine tombstones bearing inscriptions in classical Armenian. The first of them reads as follows: "This is the tomb of Khoja (a Persian title of respect) Moorad, who departed to Christ in the year A.D. 1645." The author thinks that as the church was built here in 1562, many more deaths must have occurred up to 1701, the date of the last inscription.

Mr. Seth describes how for many years Armenia became the battle-field of the Persian and Turkish dominions respectively, representing the opposed Islamic sects of Shia'h and Sunni, and how both Persian and Turk devastated the country. This in order to prevent each other's power of recuperation. The Armenian inhabitants were the chief sufferers from the effects of their religious and political animosities, and there is an episode which, in consequence of its great hardships, the Armenians never forget.

This episode is described by the author as follows:—"In one of his many expeditions against Shah Abbas, the Great King of Persia, had occasion to visit the commercial city of Julfa on the banks of the Aras river, and a royal reception was accorded him by the opulent citizens. Their wealth dazzled the eyes of the avaricious and crafty monarch, and he resolved to make himself their master. He had long had the develop-

ment of the trade of his country at heart, and as there was lack of commercial enterprise in his own subjects he determined to make the Armenians, who carried on an extensive trade with India, instrumental in improving the trade of his own with other countries, and particularly with India. He carried out his cherished project to the detriment of the Armenians, whose position as merchants at that period was rather enviable in the commercial world. He issued a mandate to his soldiers, to be carried out within three days, that they should raze the town level with the ground and force the inhabitants to leave their homes and migrate to Persia. The hapless Armenians, with tears and lamentations, were thus forced to abandon Julfa, and after encountering great hardship about twelve thousand families reached the city of Ispahan in A.D. 1605, where, however, every hospitality was accorded them by the great Shah Abbas. He evinced great interest in his guests (!), as he called them, and allowed them an extensive piece of ground in the suburbs of Zenderood. The Armenian colonists there built a city, which they styled New Julfa, in memory of the one abandoned."

He tells us that they prospered here, but a bad successor of Shah Abbas, wanting to appropriate their wealth, had recourse to the use of tortures, in consequence of which the well-to-do fled the country with their families and their wealth at the dead of night to avoid detection. From Ispahan they reached Basrah, and from thence sailed to India. The first port they reached was Surat. Here they formed a settlement and built two churches. He adds that Surat and its district was one of the parts of India, the earliest brought into close relations with European countries.

In his third chapter, the author gives an account of the settlement of the Armenians in Behar and Bengal, and shows how they formed a permanent settlement at Syedabad, the commercial suburb of Murshidabad, in virtue of a firman or decree issued in 1665 by Aurungzebe, the Mogul Emperor of Delhi. "At Syedabad," he says, "the Armenians

rendered valuable services to the Honourable East India Company during the eventful year of 1756, when Holwell and his fellow-captives were taken to Murshidabad after the tragedy of the Black Hole of Calcutta." He informs us that the oldest Christian church in Bengal is the Roman Catholic Church at Bandel, built by the Portuguese in 1599, and the next the Armenian church at Chinsurah, erected by the Marcar family in 1695, and completed in 1697. It was dedicated to S. John the Baptist. When the donor of the church died in the same year a memorial inscription in Armenian verse was put over his tomb, of which Mr. Seth has given an excellent rendering. It deserves the special notice of those who take an interest in Christian monumental work.

In the course of his archæological work for the Bengal Government, Mr. Seth found in the Armenian churchyard of Calcutta a tomb bearing the date of July 11, 1630, "a much older Christian tomb," he states, "than that of Job Charnock in the churchyard of S. John's Church (the old cathedral), whose shrine, according to the popularly accepted tradition in connexion with the founding of Calcutta by him in 1690, was hitherto acknowledged as the oldest in Calcutta."

We then have the description of the most interesting episode of all to the students of the early history of Fort William and the English trade corporation there established. An eminent Armenian merchant named Khojah Israel Sarhad had ingratiated himself at the court of Azimush-Shan in 1687, and eventually became a favourite with his young son, Furrukh Siyar, then about fourteen years old. The friendship of the future emperor was won by presents of toys, at that time very acceptable, for which he expressed a great deal of satisfaction, often sending for Khojah Sarhad and making him sit by him many hours to show what uses they were for.¹

¹ The result was that in July, 1698, for the sum of sixteen thousand rupees the English acquired letters-patent from the Prince allowing them to purchase from existing holders the right of renting the three villages of Calcutta, Sutanati, and Govindpur.

In those days, as always, the Armenians, as fellow-traders, were rendering excellent service to the East India Company; and when, in 1715, they were under the necessity of sending a deputation to the Mogul Court at Delhi they secured the services of Khojah Israel Sarhad, who was known as an Armenian merchant of great eminence and vast influence. It appears that he had a thorough knowledge of English and Persian. Accordingly he was selected to accompany John Surman and Edward Stephenson, of the Company's Their object, we are told, was to solicit redress for service. past and security against future oppression, for an extension of their old and for many new privileges, and particularly for a small spot of ground to be allowed them wherever they settled a factory. The deputation reached Delhi on the 8th July, 1715. Khojah Sarhad, being on terms of intimacy with the Emperor Ferrukh Siyar, matters progressed speedily, and, on condition of paying ten thousand rupees per annum as a peshcush or acknowledgment, the Grand Firman or decree was issued on the 6th January, 1716-17. At p. 36. Mr. Seth gives a faithful translation of this state document, whose date is forty years before the battle of Plassey under Clive

The good relations subsisting between the Armenians and the English ceased when the latter decided on becoming a territorial power. The cause was the salt monopoly, which in the hands of the Armenian operators and merchants was five times cheaper than after it was forcibly appropriated by Governor Harry Verelst and Francis Sykes, representing the council of the Company. This, we are told, caused the total ruin of many Armenian families.

The historian mentions with feelings of satisfaction and pride the charitable deeds performed by many of his Christian fellow-countrymen. He narrates that at the time of the tragedy of the Black Hole in 1756, when Drake, the Governor of Calcutta, with other English people took refuge in ships, dropped down with the tide, and anchored off Fulta, forty

miles away from the city, it was Khojah Petrus Aratoon, an Armenian merchant of Calcutta, who secretly supplied them for some six months with boat-loads of provisions from Calcutta until the arrival of the "army of retribution" from Madras. He also mentions the patronage accorded to Greek merchants by Armenians, who represented the leading commercial element in the middle of the eighteenth century.

The author makes especial mention of Mesrovb David Thaliatin (1803-58) as his teacher at Calcutta, who, he says, gave a sound education in Armenian and English. What must be peculiarly interesting to many English readers is the circumstance that Thaliatin was admitted into Bishop's College at Calcutta as a foundationer in 1828 by the saintly Bishop Heber, the well-known hymn-writer, who was at that time Bishop of Calcutta, and "whose memory", he informs us, "he (Thaliatin) reverenced throughout his life." Thus some of the spirit must have descended on him, and through him on the author himself. To show how well Thaliatin profited by his admission to Bishop's College, he says: "Here, after a course of five years, during which he studied English, Latin, Greek, and Persian, besides the fine arts, the Board of Education certified him as Master of Arts." He was born at Erivan and died at Shiras. A marble mural tablet erected in the Armenian church in that famous city describes him as "an erudite professor, a profound scholar, an eminent poet and historian".

The historian reserved his best encomiums for the Armenians of Southern India. "They settled permanently," he says, "at Madras in the year 1666. These opulent merchants were famous for their piety and true philanthropy, and for the great zeal they evinced in the advancement of Armenian classical literature in India. Their patriotism is perhaps unparalleled." The reader will find their names and the work they did in the pages of the history. I should have

^{1 &}quot;From Greenland's icy mountains"; "Holy, holy, holy, Lord God Almighty" are two of the well-known eight hymns he wrote.

liked to discuss the editorial article in the Calcutta Statesman, and Rev. Graham Sandberg's article in the Calcutta Review on Classical Armenian, and the treasures of classical Greek literature and early Christian literature found in an Armenian dress, but already I have far exceeded my space. Mr. Seth's work received highly appreciative notices in the Press of Calcutta and Bombay.

G. HAGOPIAN.

LINGUISTIC SURVEY OF JNDIA: THE DARDIC OR PIŚĀCHĀ LANGUAGES. By Sir George Grierson, K.C.I.E., D.Litt., Ph D. 14×10¼, xi + 567 pp. Calcutta: Government Press, 1919.

The forefathers of the Indo-European race appear to have lived once in the Steppes of Russia. Some of them. the ancestors of the Aryans, went east and settled in Khiva, going on ultimately to Khokhand and Badakhshan. Their descendants now speak three branches of languages all dealt with in the Survey: (1) Indo-Aryan, comprising nearly twenty languages, including Pănjābī, Hindī, Guirātī, Mărāthī, and Bengali, and in the north-west Sindhi and Laihndi; (2) Irano-Aryan, with eight modern Iranian languages, of which Persian and Pashto are the best known; (3) Piśaco-Aryan, or Dardo-Aryan, divided by Sir George Grierson into three groups, Kāfir, Khōwār, and Dărd. I retain "Aryan" in (2) and (3) to show the relationship. Sanskrit, great-uncle of all Indo-Aryan languages, is ancestor of none. To the Dardo-Aryan and Irano-Aryan languages it is first cousin, or first cousin once removed. Aryan languages number in all nearly forty, of which a third belong to the Dardo-Aryan branch, and are discussed in the volume before us. and many other facts of fascinating interest may be discovered from the Linguistic Survey, the different parts of which have an appeal far transcending that of fiction.

The only one of the thirteen that has been studied with the

help of competent native scholars is Kăśmīrī. I have often thought that Sir George Grierson has never done anything finer than his work on this language. Not only in these pages, but in his Kăśmīrī Manual, in the exhaustive articles contributed to the Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, in $Lall\bar{a}\ V\bar{a}ky\bar{a}n\bar{\imath}$, and in the Dictionary now passing through the press we have him at his best.

For the other languages there are no native scholars. Very few speakers are literate, and not one is well-educated. The resulting disadvantages will be easily realized. Except in the case of Kăśmīrī, the materials out of which the volume is built up are furnished by Europeans, travellers, or temporary residents, who for a short period made the country their home. One or two specimens were supplied by an Indian, but he was not a native. It follows that many points of grammar and pronunciation still require elucidation. Owing to the discrepancies in the material, Sir George hazards the not unnatural suggestions that in the Dard languages there are no real cerebrals, that there is much confusion in the use of cerebrals, and that in point of aspiration the languages differ largely from their Indian cousins.

With reference to Shina (Ṣiṇā) I am able to give a definite answer. I have studied it somewhat fully with native instructors in five dialects, those of Gilgit, Kohistān, Cilās, Gūrēs, and Drās. All these dialects have eight cerebrals, Drāsī having nine, viz. t, d, n, r, c, s, z, cerebral j, and in Drāsī l. The letters t, d, r, l, are pronounced as in the Pănjāb, except that with a high front vowel t and d are slightly more advanced than with back or low-front vowels (a phenomenon observable also in Central Păhārī). Final n is further forward than medial n. The so-called palatal letters, c, s, j, $\underline{z}h$, have their cerebral counterparts, c, s, cerebral j, and z. It is remarkable that a considerable majority of words containing t, d, r, n are non-Sanskritic, a fact which shows us that the letters belong to the original Aryan heritage of the race. Of the cerebral palatals a majority have Sanskritic

equivalents. The forms jr and tr given in the specimens are mistakes for cerebral j and c, the transcriber's ear having been conscious of some peculiarity, but not having understood it. The word dhog, about which a question is asked, should be dok.

The cerebral letters are used with extraordinary consistency, they are not confounded with non-cerebrals. This uniformity appears not only within the limits of one dialect, but over the whole area of the language. In the five dialects at which I have worked I have found the cerebrals the same everywhere (my notebooks were compiled in four different years independently of each other). A good illustration of consistency is the word kon, ear, which always has nom. sing. with alveolar n, but when a vowel follows, as in the nom. plur., every dialect changes it to a cerebral. This uniformity holds in the case of all cerebrals, and seems the more remarkable when we remember the very different state of affairs in Hindi and to some extent in Urdu and Panjabi.

The English sound of th, whether unvoiced as in "think", or voiced as in "then", does not occur in Sinā. Sonant letters are not aspirated except occasionally by accident. Surds are freely aspirated, but aspirated surds are kept distinct from unaspirated. In the case of words common to Sinā and Indo-Aryan languages Sinā in general has the same aspiration as India except for sonants. Thus the words for "eat" and "inquire" always contain kh as in India, $kh\bar{o}n^u$, $khoj\bar{o}n^u$, or $khoik^i$, $khojoik^i$; so, too, $thy\bar{o}n^u$, $thoik^i$, to do, is always aspirated. The uniformity in cerebrals characterizes also aspiration. Final surds follow a separate rule. The existence of final unvoiced vowels and a tendency to partial devocalization of final sonants may mislead the unwary.

Two other matters of importance which do not appear from the specimens call for reference. One is the remarkable accentual system upon which nearly all the declension and conjugation depend; the other is the fact that Siṇā contains tone words. Many words are pronounced with a low-rising tone similar to the low tone in Pănjābī and Laihndī. This tone is significant, as is seen from the following examples. † marks the tone:—

bas†, lung; bas, language. $d\bar{a}r^i$ †, doors; $d\bar{a}r^i$, boys. $l\bar{e}l$ †, visible; $l\bar{e}l$, blood. dak†, mouthful; dak, post. $s\bar{i}d\bar{e}$ †, having struck; $s\bar{i}d\bar{e}$, strike (imperat.). $th\bar{e}$ †, having done; $th\bar{e}$, do (imperat.).

Six languages of the Kafir group receive 104 pages, Khowar gets 16, 84 are taken up with the discussion of Ṣiṇā, three dialects of Kohĭstānī get 44. The last 17 pages of the book are given to Burushaski; the Muṇḍa problem is not gone into. Kāśmīrī, with its dialects, receives 274 pages, or nearly half the book. Everyone should study this section to see how a strangely complicated grammatical system may be simplified. A reader who begins Kāśmīrī with Sir George Grierson's help will not realize the magnitude of the task performed or the excellence of the performance. He will never understand that the well-trimmed garden, with its walks and beds and fountains was impenetrable jungle, dense undergrowth and clinging tendrils making passage well-nigh impossible. The garden has now been made and a linguistic pleasaunce open to all awaits its throng of visitors.

One request I have to make of the distinguished author before he publishes the Introductory volume of this series. It is this—that in dealing with Ṣiṇā, in which I take an affectionate interest, he will discontinue the use of the term "Brokpa" as the name of a dialect. Both from the map, where it includes the widely dissimilar dialects of Drās and Dāh Hānu, and from the text, where all other dialects of Ṣiṇā are called Shina, and these two alone called Brokpa, students will conclude that the two dialects called Brokpa are closely allied, but are separated by a considerable interval from those called Shina, whereas the truth is that the Drās

dialect resembles Gŭrēsī as much as the English spoken in Edinburgh resembles that spoken in London, and is nearly allied to that spoken in Kohĭstān, but is unintelligible to the Dāh Hănu people.

The facts are, I believe, as follows: one of the numerous clans into which Ṣīṇs¹ are divided is called Brokpa. A few, very few, Brokpa families settled in Drās, a few miles away from Gǔrēs, and speak practically the same language as their fellow Brokpas who remained behind, and as the other Ṣīn clans. A few more of the Brokpas have gone many marches further away, and are isolated in the villages of Pāh and Hānu, speaking a semi-Tibetan patois not understood by any other Ṣīṇs. I would suggest that the Drās dialect be called Ṣīṇā of Drās, or shortly Drāsī, and its distant relative in Tibetan overalls named simply Pāh Hānu. Should there be any reason for retaining the name Brokpa, let it be confined to the Dāh Hānu dialect.

If one were to review this volume according to its merits and interest; the review would become a pamphlet. But one must put a curb on one's inclinations. English scholarship need not fear comparison so long as it can produce books like the one before us or scholars like Sir George Grierson.

T. GRAHAME BAILEY.

LINGUISTIC SURVEY OF INDIA: SINDHI AND LAHNDA. By Sir George Grierson, K.C.I.E., D.Litt., Ph.D. $14 \times 10\frac{1}{4}$, viii + 584 pp. Calcutta: Government Press, 1919.

Sĭndhī and Lahnda or Laihndī² form the north-western group of the outer circle of Indo-Aryan languages. The romance of the inner and outer groups, as narrated by Sir George Grierson, is a story we never tire of; each time

¹ The word Sin has cerebral s, cerebral n, and the low-rising tone.

² In the Bulletin of the School of Oriental Studies, vol. ii, part i, I have given my reasons for strongly preferring the feminine form Laihndi, which better accords with the North Indian mode of thought.

we hear it we recall details inadequately appreciated before. These two languages belong to the great outer group, which includes Bengali and Assamese in the east and Mărāthī in the west, but the wedge driven into it has separated Sindhī and Laihndī from their brothers and quondam neighbours. The remarkable connexion with the Piśācā or Dardic languages of the north forms another chapter in their life-history, a chapter skilfully unfolded here. The Dards, we are told, sent their colonies down into India both east and west. At one time Dard languages were spoken over a larger part of northern India, and the result to-day is that a study of Eastern, Central, and Western Păhārī on the one hand, and of the two languages before us on the other, reveals unexpected borrowing from Dărdī in every case. In Sĭndhī the relationship is clear, owing to conditions which have prevented influences from other directions. The question of Laihndi is more complicated, but Sir George Grierson, who possesses Aladdin's lamp, illuminates the difficulties here, too, and shows the mutual encroachments of the old Dardic and Western Hindī languages, the former spreading to the east, and the latter to the west, so that now we have in the west Laihndī with Dardic influence strong and Hindī weak, and in the east Pănjābī, in which the opposite is the case, Hindī being much more powerful than Dărdī. Professor Sten Konow, as Sir George tells us, disagrees, and holds that the Píśācās came from Central India.

The volume deals with the speech of about ten million people on the western border of North India. Sĭndhī is spoken by three millions, including half a million who speak Kăcchī, and some thousands who speak minor dialects. Laihndī is spoken by seven million people, divided approximately as follows: Standard dialect four and a half millions (Standard proper one and a half millions, Mŭltānī over two millions, Thāļī 750,000), North-West Laihndī one million, North-East Laihndī one and three-quarter millions.

Following on the introduction, over eighty pages are devoted to a lucid account of Sĭndhī grammar, after which come the

specimens illustrating the grammar; a number are given in facsimile. The student's path is rendered easy by the principal features being pointed out. Dealing with Laihndī Sir George emphasises again the connexion with the Dardic languages. Laihndī is a tone language. In describing the tones Sir George quotes from an early work of mine, written when I was still feeling my way, and therefore not quite accurate. I gave the impression then that the deep or low-rising tone was heard only with sonant letters. The fact is that it may accompany any letter, sonant or surd. We hear it not only with g, b, d, etc., but also with k, p, t, and even with the aspirated forms, kh, ph, ιh . In this last case both the k, etc., and the aspiration are distinctly heard in addition to the deep tone. It is also found with s, \acute{s} , c, ch—in short, with any letter whatsoever. Strictly speaking it follows, not accompanies. a consonant with which it is connected. It accompanies, but may partially follow a vowel. The high-falling tone half precedes, half follows a consonant; it may do the same with a vowel, but it may be co-extensive with it. The two tones may be combined into a third tone. It is my experience that tones are heard more in northern Laihndī than in southern; e.g. in Kāgānī, on the extreme north they are strongly marked. This dialect is known locally as Hindki, and so called in the Survey. The whole valley where it is spoken is named the Kāgān valley after the village of that name written Khagan on the maps and in the Survey. The area over which tones are found has not yet been ascertained.

On p. 264 attention is drawn to the presence of \underline{kh} in a word of Indian origin. Both \underline{kh} and g are, however, extremely common in Laihnd, becoming increasingly so as we go north. That this does not appear from the specimens is due to the fact that spelling is largely conventional, and a scribe, whether Indian or European, hardly realizes that to be accurate he should write $\underline{sikh}d\bar{a}$, learning; $\underline{vekh}d\bar{a}$, looking; $\underline{rakh}d\bar{a}$, placing; $\underline{tagr\bar{a}}$, strong, and so with many other words.

The account of Laihndī grammar is a model of clearness.

JRAS. JULY 1921.

31

The six declensions are of great value in illustrating northern Panjābī. All but one of them (that with the internal vowel change) are found in Pănjābī. In this latter language the fem. plur. endings $-\tilde{\imath}$ and $-\tilde{u}$ are generally additional forms. It would be worth while finding out to what extent this is true of Laihndī.

On p. 253 $bhr\bar{a}$ is said to be irregular on the ground that its plural is $bhr\bar{a}$ instead of $bhr\bar{e}$. I venture to suggest that the first declension should be said to consist of those masc. tadbhava nouns whose nom. sing. ends in unaccented $-\bar{a}$; $bhr\bar{a}$ or $bhir\bar{a}$ will then belong to the third declension and be regular, so far as the nom. plur. is concerned. Even the irregularity of obl. $bhr\bar{a}\bar{u}$, voc. $bhr\bar{a}\bar{u}\bar{a}$, is open to question, for $bhr\bar{a}\bar{u}$ is found in the nom. A similar doubt exists about the $-\bar{u}$ inserted before the s of the future in verbs ending in a vowel. The infin. of the verb quoted is often $\bar{a}\bar{u}n\bar{a}$, and one would expect the form $\bar{a}\bar{u}s\bar{a}$.

A point of some interest is suggested by causal verbs. On p. 268 we find "cause to be struck" or "sold", along with "cause to drink, seize, raise", etc. I think the following rule meets the case of causals: when the verb to be rendered causal is trans., the causal verb will always mean "cause to be drunk, seized, raised," etc., but when the first verb is intrans., the causal will mean "cause to run, walk", etc. In the second class the object of a causal verb is the person or creature that walks or runs, in the first the object is not the person or creature that drinks, seizes, or raises, but the thing that is drunk, seized, or raised.

Another suggestion I make with the diffidence due from one reviewing the work of a master, viz. that the s in $j\bar{a}te\bar{o}s$, p. 271, is not the s of a nom. with an intrans. verb, but the s of the agent with a trans. verb. Two pages further on the same verb is given as trans., with which I agree.

One important peculiarity of the pres. part. in North-West Laihndī does not appear from the specimens. It can be well illustrated from the Hĭndkī or Kāgānī dialect. When the root of a verb ends in a surd letter, $-t\bar{a}$ is added for the pres. part., but when it ends in a sonant, the addition is $-d\bar{a}$. Thus we get $di\underline{kh}t\bar{a}$, seeing; $hakt\bar{a}$, being able; but $j\bar{u}ld\bar{a}$, going; and $d\bar{o}ld\bar{a}$, pouring. This rule, which is quite different from that prevailing in $Urd\bar{u}$, $Hind\bar{i}$, $Panj\bar{a}b\bar{i}$, and even Southern Laihnd \bar{i} , has a bearing on the Romani question, which I have not seen mentioned elsewhere.

I have studied all Sir George Grierson's volumes in this series, and I never rise from the study of one of them without a feeling of astonishment at the mastery of detail, the power of extracting living facts out of a bewildering mass of often discordant minutiæ, the sureness of touch and quickness of vision. These qualities, granted to few in a generation, characterize the volume before us.

T. GRAHAME BAILEY.

Catalogue of Coins in the Provincial Museum, Lucknow: Coins of the Mughal Emperors. By C. J. Brown. Vol. I, $10 \times 6\frac{1}{2}$, pp. 89, plates 22. Vol. II, $10 \times 6\frac{1}{2}$, pp. 468. Oxford, 1920.

These two handsome volumes contain one of the largest collections of coins of the Moghul Emperors yet published, nearly 6,000 coins being described. Even allowing for the duplicates, the Lucknow series is much larger than that in the Panjab Museum or in the British Museum (now 600 gold, 3,000 silver, 800 copper) in point of numbers. In quality, however, it does not compare very favourably with either, in spite of an unrivalled series of silver coins of Akbar and Jahangir. The bulk of the coins came from treasure trove in the United Provinces with the addition of the Ellis Collection purchased in 1904. The 'Kashipur and Jhansi finds show what can be found in the United Provinces, and the Museum may look forward to a continual strengthening of its collection from the systematic work of the U.P. Coin Committee and the operations of the law of treasure trove.

It is to be hoped that it may some day have a good find of gold coins, in which it is at present very weak.

Mr. Brown has followed the lines laid down by Mr. Nelson Wright in his India Museum Catalogue and Mr. Whitehead in his Lahore Catalogue. In the text of the Catalogue the coins are classified under metals and mints, which is now generally recognized as a great advance on the chronological arrangement of the B.M. Catalogue. The introductory volume I is a valuable contribution to the study of Moghul numismatics. The map of India illustrates our present knowledge of Moghul mints and reveals the great advance made since the I.M. Catalogue was published. An original and the most valuable feature of the work is the list of eighty different couplets found on Moghul coins, which shows the great number of new coins that have been found since the B.M. Catalogue appeared. Additions have no doubt still to be made to this list. A valuable glossary of words and phrases found on coins is followed by a list of denominations, etc. Mr. Brown in his mint list confines himself largely to coins in the Lucknow Collection, which does not add a great deal to Mr. Whitehead's comprehensive survey. The plates of ornaments found on coins represent a vast amount of work, which will be greatly appreciated by collectors and will enable them to identify many of their uncertain coins. Mr. Brown has performed his task most carefully and thoroughly, and the Clarendon Press has printed the volumes in admirable fashion.

We hope these volumes will soon be followed by others dealing with the coins of other dynasties in the Lucknow Museum. It ought to be strong in Hindu and Pathan coins, two series which have not had their share of attention in India. One can appreciate the fascination of Moghul coins for the collector, with their great variety of mints, denominations, and legends, but they are, after all, comparatively modern coins, covering a period for the history of which we have ample literary sources, and can never be of the same value to the historian as the numismatic records of earlier periods.

We must not appear ungrateful to the Government of India for the attention it has given in recent years to the numismatist, who is no longer the *vox clamantis* he was in the day of Mr. Rodgers, but we hope the next Indian collection to be catalogued will not be a Moghul one.

J. ALLAN.

The Copper Coins of India. Part II: The Panjab and Contiguous Native States. By W. H. Valentine. $6\frac{1}{4} \times 9\frac{3}{4}$, pp. 78, 68 plates. London: Spink & Son, Limited. 1920.

Students of Oriental coins are familiar with Mr. Valentine's book on Muhammadan Copper Coins and with part I of the present work. Part II deals with the extensive coinages of North-Western India from about the eleventh century. the case of the Sultans of Delhi the author includes many billon coins and has collected much information attainable in scattered articles. Mr. Valentine has brought together a very fine series of copper coins of the Sikhs and Durranis. His drawings are beautifully done and very well reproduced. It is unfortunate that no uniformity is observed in the transliteration of the legends, which the beginner may find a little puzzling. The table of contractions should have been reproduced in this part also, as we presume the idea of the geographical arrangement is that it should appeal to collectors in the separate provinces. Coins No. 574a, b, c are surely South Indian and not of Delhi mint. The legends on the coins of Kaithal, etc., are those of Ahmad Shah Durrani, and not of the Moghul Ahmad. The coins of Nahan mint were published by Rodgers in the JASB., 1897. Those who have found Mr. Valentine's part I useful will welcome this volume. which ought to be in every Indian library.

J. ALLAN.

THE ATHARVAVEDIYA PANCHA-PATALIKA. Throwing light on the arrangement, division, and text of the Atharva Veda Samhita. With a [Hindi] translation and an index of the pratikas. Edited by Bhagwaddatta, B.A. $7\frac{1}{2} + 5\frac{1}{4}$, pp. xiv, 40. 8vo. Lahore, 1920.

This ancient anukramanī of the Atharva-vēda, which is the third laksana-grantha of the latter, has been known by name for some time to western students, and a considerable number of excerpts from it have been noticed in Sankara Pāṇduranga Paṇdit's Bombay edition of the AV., and in Whitney's translation (Harvard Oriental Series, vols. 7-8). Professor Bhagwaddatta now gives us the whole text of the tract, together with introduction, paraphrase, and notes in Hindi. Unfortunately his edition cannot be said to be a final one. Only two MSS, were used by him, and though he tells us that one of these is "very correctly written" (bahut śuddh likhā huā hai), the other is admittedly unsatisfactory, and both of them often agree in the same blunders, suggesting either that one is copied from the other or that both are derived from a common source. In some passages their corruptions seem to defy emendation. However, the editor has made the best of his rather inadequate materials, and his work enables us to estimate with tolerable completeness the value of the Pp. for the textual criticism of the AV.

As its name implies, the Pp. consists of five chapters. The first of these deals with the rules of *uktanukta*, i.e. abbreviation in copying the text of the AV. by the omission of phrases repeated from previous passages. The second enumerates the divisions of the text of the AV.,¹ while the third gives a `list of the avasānas or stops in the

¹ Thus it states that in kāṇḍas I-IV all the anuvākas, with six exceptions, have five sāktas each; in V all have five sāktas each, with one exception (sc. iv); in VI all have ten sāktas apiece, with five exceptions; VII consists of hymns of one verseeach; in VIII-XI each anuvāka contains two sāktas; in XII-XIV and XVII again each hymn consists only of one verse; and so forth.

text (compare the introduction to Whitney's translation, p. exxxii), the fourth the number of verses in the anuvākas, and the fifth the numbers of the stops in VIII-XVI. It may be noted that the Pp. knows only I-XVIII, and seems to make a division of the AV. into I-VII, VIII-XI, and XII-XVIII. In the main it may be said to confirm the current text of the Saunakīya recension of the AV., though some details point to differences.

L. D. BARNETT.

ERRATA

In addition to the corrections by Mr. Krenkow (JRAS., April, 1921, pp. 248-9). I offer here some more emendations to my paper on the library in possession of the shrine of Imam Riza at Meshed (JRAS., 1920, pp. 535-63):—

p. 538, second line from the bottom of the page. Instead of

الأف التحية read الأف الجنة (a quite reasonable suggestion of an Indian Moulvie).

- p. 545, No. 10, probably is the same as Nos. 9, 14, 15 (it was lithographed in Persia).
- p. 546, Nos. 17 and 23 most probably are the manuscript copies of Tusi's List (edited by A. Sprenger, Calcutta, 1853-5). The Shi'a usually call this book
- p. 551, No. 69. Most probably not printed, but lithographed.

 I know only two editions, both Indian lithography; one which appeared a long time ago, without date or place of publication, but judging from its appearance, published in Delhi. It is now very scarce. The other was lithographed at Bombay in 1318.
- المعلقات is probably a mistake for علويات.
- p. 562, on the sixth line from the top. It is more probably the third, and not the second volume of the Tajārib.
 The publication alluded to in this passage is the Gibb Memorial Series, where a portion of this book appeared in facsimile.

W. IVANOW.

NOTES OF THE QUARTER

(April-July, 1921)

ANNIVERSARY MEETING

The Anniversary Meeting was held on 10th May, Lord Reay, President, in the Chair. The Hon. Treasurer, Mr. Grant Brown, presented the balance-sheet for the past year, pointing out that the Society had temporarily borrowed £500 from the Oriental Translation Fund. Mr. Coldstream inquired whether the Society's assets covered its expenses, and the Hon. Treasurer explained that there was a small balance to its credit.

THE SECRETARY'S REPORT

Three Honorary Members have been elected during the past S ssion, namely, Professor Caland of Utrecht, Professor Clermont Ganneau, and Professor de la Vallée Poussin.

The Society has lost by death an Honorary Member, Professor Ernst Kuhn of Munich, an Honorary Vice-President in the person of Dr. Oliver Codrington, and three members of Council. These are Sir Charles Lyall (Vice-President), Mr. James Kennedy (Vice-President and late Hon. Treasurer), and Dr. Drummond Anderson.

During the year the following members of Council have been co-opted to fill the vacant seats: Sir Henry Howorth and Dr. M. Gaster as Vice-Presidents, and Mr. Otto Blagden, Professor A. A. Macdonell, and Mr. Perceval Yetts as ordinary members of Council, while Mr. Robert Mond has consented to be joint Honorary Treasurer. Under Rule 30 Mr. F. E. Pargiter retires from the post of Vice-President; under Rule 31 Dr. F. W. Thomas, Mr. Grant Brown, and Mr. A. G. Ellis retire respectively from the offices of Hon. Secretary, Hon. Treasurer, and Hon. Librarian. The Council recommend their re-election. Under Rule 32 Professor Barnett, Mr. L. C. Hopkins, and Col. Phillott resign their seats on the Council.

ABSTRACT OF RECEIPTS AND

RECEIPTS		
	£ s. d.	$\mathbf{\hat{z}}$ s d .
SUBSCRIPTIONS—		
Class "A"	285 3 0	
Class "B"	845 0 5	
Class " C "	1 10 0	
n. n. n.		1,131 13 5
RENTS RECEIVED		504 7 6
GRANT FROM INDIA OFFICE		210 0 0
		60 0 0 500 0 0
LOAN FROM SPECIAL FUNDS		500 0 0
Journal Account—	278 7 11	
Subscriptions	90 4 0	
Additional Copies sold	29 9 3	
Sale of Index	1 4 6	
C D A	4 11 6	
Damahlata	7 16 9	
" Pamphlets	1 10 9	411 13 11
DIVIDENDS	57 5 9	411 10 11
PER POST OFFICE SAVINGS	19 17 8	
INCOME TAX RETURNED	22 8 9	
INCOME IAX IVEIURNED	0 9	99 12 2
SALE OF STOCK-		00 12 2
£8J2 13s. 10d. New South Wales 4 per cent		
1933	605 4 6	
£212 Ss. Midland Railway Debentures 2½ per	000 4 0	
cent	88 13 8	
£888 16s. 9d. South Australian Government	00 10 0	
3½ per cent, 1939	586 10 7	
£300 Canada 31 per cent, 1920-50	190 9 0	
£236 78. 9d. 2½ per cent Consols	107 17 10	
£201 9s. 3d. New Zealand 4 per cent, 1943-63	137 15 2	
£297 78. New Zealand 4 per cent, 1929 .	237 4 0	
1		1,953 14 9
Interest on Deposit—		•
Lloyds Bank	3 0 10	
Post Office Savings Bank	$2 \ 1 \ 5$	
· ·		5 2 3
SUNDRY RECEIPTS	8 18 11	
INCOME TAX SCHEDULE "A" paid in excess by		
Westminster Estate Office	11 5 0	
		20 3 11
BALANCE IN HAND JANUARY 1, 1920		859 6 9

£5,755 14 8

FUNDS.

£454 16s. 9d. 3 per cent Local Loans Stock. £350 5 per cent War Loan, 1929-47. £125 National War Bonds (4th series), 1929.

Note.—There is a liability in respect of a loan from the Oriental Translation Fund of £500.

PAYMENTS FOR THE YEAR 1920

PA	YME	NTS							
				£	8.	d.	£	4.	d.
House Account-				-		•••	-		
Rent, Rates, Taxes, and Insura	ance			496	16	4	l .		
Gas and Electric Light .				42		3	•		
Coals and Coke			-		19	4			
Telephone	-		·		ő	6			
Telephone			·	_	7	-			
Window Cleaning	-	-	•		14	Ğ			
Decorations and Repairs .	•	•	•	7	0	4			
Other Expenditure	•		•	21	6	7			
Other Expenditure	•	•	•				624	11	101
EXPENSES ON ACCOUNT OF REMOV	7 A T						024	11	102
Repairs and Decorations, etc.				2,125	16	10			
		•		241	4	8			
	•	•	•	251	-	0			
Heat Circular	•	•	•			-			
Removal Expenses	74.0	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	•	155	5	0			
Rent, December Quarter, 1920	-	irosvei	nor	105	^	_			
Street	•	•	•	125	-	0			
Furnishing	•	•	•	136		3			
Architect, employed by Society	<i>'</i> •	•	•	157		8			
Agent ,, ,,	•	•	•	100		0			
Solicitor's Charges	•	•	•	82		6			
Miscellaneous	•			20	10	1			
							3,3 96		0
SALARIES AND WAGES							671	13	8
Printing and Stationery .							74	13	6
LI RARY							24	18	61
JOURNAL ACCOUNT-									-
Printing				518	16	0			
Postage				40	19	0			
g							559	15	0
AUDITOR'S FEE							5	5	0
BANK CHARGES							i	Ö	Ó
POSTAGE AND TELEGRAMS .							49	10	Ŏ
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SUNDRY PAYMENTS-							•	14	•
Teas				90	16	11			
Lantern Operator	•	•	•			6			
Parcels and Fares	•	•	•		4	-			
Sundries	•	•	•	17	6	3			
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PATANGES IN HAND DESCRIPTION OF	100	n.					49	19	U
BALANCES IN HAND DECEMBER 31				101	10	,			
Lloyds Bank, Current Account	•	•	•	191		1			
Post Office Savings Bank .	•	•	•	94		7			
Petty Cash	•	•	•	2	0	7	••=		_
							287	15	3
						£	5,755	14	8

We have examined the above Abstract of Receipts and Payments with the books and vouchers of the Society, and have C. FRAZER, for the Society. verified the investments therein described, and we hereby certify the said abstract to be true and correct.

SPECIAL FUNDS

~ - (£866 3 0 13 6 12 0 205 4 6 39 13 10 £244 19 4	289 6 1	62 3 1 £62 3 1
PAYMENTS ANY TO GENERAL FUND. ORING OF QUIRE STOCK NDING VOLS. I-VI, X, AND XIV . NK CHARGES LINCE CARRIED TO SUMMARY	3 0 Момосвари Голо Репутимо Vol. XVII . 186 13 0 6 Вимого Вимого Ображения . 18 12 8 10 Dec. 31. Вагаксе Савнер то Summary 9 4	FUNDS ATION FUND Dec. 31. BALANCE CARRIED TO SUMMARY	Medal Fund 11 Dec. 31. Balance Carried to Summary 2
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RECEIPTS BALANCE	BALANCE SALES	BALANCE	BALANCE DIVIDENDS INTEREST
1920. Jan. 1.	Jan. 1.	Jan. 1.	Jan. 1.

Jan. 1. Balance	Teas 8 6 Book Prizes 5 5 0 Cost of Medal 7 5 0	
1 21 61	PRINTING 1 5 U	16 3 6
	Dec. 31. Balance Carried to Summary 29	26 12 6
11 21 213	£4 	£42 15 11
SUMMARY OF SPECI	SUMMARY OF SPECIAL FUND BALANCES	
ORIENTAL TRANSLATION FUND	CASH AT BANKERS-On Current Account 36	365 10 11
£365 10 11	963	11 01 2983
Note.—There is a loan outstanding from the Otiental Translation Fund to the General Fund of £500.	ı	
ns.		1 1
MEDAL FUND 62 3 1 PUBLIC SCHOOLS GOLD MEDAL FUND . 261 2 5	CASH AT DANNERS—OII CHITCHI ACCOUNT	•
T 1 828	183	£378 1 7
TRUST FUNDS		
£630 Nottingham Corporation 3 per cent Irredeemable "B" Stock (Prize Publication Fund).		
£325 Nottingtam Corporation 3 per cent Irredeemable "A"		
Scott (Media Fund). £645 118. 2d. Notingham Corporation 3 per cent Irredeemable "B" Stock (Public Schools Medal Fund).	R. GRANT BROWN, Hon. Treasurer.	easurer.
We have examined the above Statement with the books and vouchers, and hereby L. C. HOPKINS, for the Council. certify the same to be correct. We have also had produced to us certificates for FRAZER, for the Society. Stock Investments and Bank Balances. Stock Layer April 7, 1921.	ers, and hereby L. C. HOPKINS, for the Council. s certificates for C. FRAZER, for the Society. N. E. WATERHOUSE, Professional Au	uditor.

PUBLIC SCHOOLS GOLD MEDAL

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ABSTRACT OF RECEIPTS AND PAYMENTS FOR THE YEAR 19	OF	RECEIPTS	AND	PAYMENTS	FOR	THE	YEAR	Ħ
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			બ	125	Ş	25.5												١	£193	
FURLUIM DEGUEST	ABSTRACT OF RECEIPTS AND PAYMENTS FOR THE YEAR 1920	PAYMENTS		Jan. 31. GRANT TO ORIENTAL SCHOOL FOR LECTURES 125	MBER 31, 192	On Current Account 195 8	•						•			-			- स	
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	ABSTRACT	RECEIPTS		BAL	Cash at Bank on Current	Account 191 15 10		NEW SOUTH WALES 4 per cent 28 3 2	SOUTH AUSTRALIAN GOVERN-	MENT 4 per cent	BENGAL NAGPUR RAILWAY .	· 33 per cent INDIA on £1,143 6s. 3d. 28	East India Railway Co 31 12 0	5 per cent WAR LOAN 1929-47.	4	INTEREST ON DEPOSIT ACCOUNT	RETURN OF INCOME TAX			
			1990	Jan. 1.																

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8 1

£1,010 Bangal Nagpur Railway 4 per cent Debenture Stock. £1,015 163. 3d. South Australian Government4 per cent Inscribed

673 5 8

£45 East Indian Railway Company Annuity, Class "B". £1,005 14s. 7d. New South Wales 4 per cent Stock, 1942-62. Stock, 1940-60.

£253 18s. 4d. War Loan, 5 per cent, 1929-47. £1,143 6s. 3d. India 3g per cent Stock.

We have examined the above Abstract of Receipts and Payments with the books and L. C. HOPKINS, for the Council. vouchers of the Society and have verified the Investments therein described, and C. FRAZER, for the Society.

we certify the said abstract to be true and correct.

we certify the said abstract to be true and correct.

The Council has nominated Professor A. A. Macdonell to be Vice-President, and Dr. Graham Bailey, Dr. Lionel Giles, Mr. F. E. Pargiter, and Sir Denison Ross to be ordinary members of Council.

The following 12 ordinary members have died during the past year:—

Mr. Ahmad M. Shaikh Ansari.

Mr. Wynne Baxter.

H.H. the Maharajah of Bobbili.

Mr. K. R. Cama.

Mrs. Philippa De Lisle.

Mrs. Finn.

Rev. C. W. Mitchell.

Mr. R. Prasada.

Effendi Faris Selim.

Rev. Anton Tien.

Dr. Satis Chandra, Vidyā-

bhūsana.

Pandit R. Vaidya, Vidyaratna.

The following 18 members have resigned:-

Rev. F. M. Bussell.

Dr. Colin Campbell.

The Lord Chalmers.

Lev. Canon Cooke.

Mr. W. Craig. Lady Davis.

Mr. Yuhanna Dawud.

Mr. Mohini Dhar.

Mr. Alfred Dobrée.

Miss Mary Foley.

Mr. S. Hillelson.

Mr. G. R. S. Mead.

Colonel W. J. Muir.

Babu P. Chandra, Protnatta Bisharad, Mukhopadhyaya.

Rev. F. C. Norton.

The Lord Sandhurst.

Dr. Otto Strauss.

Major A. C. Tancock.

The following 31 members have been removed owing to non-payment of their subscriptions:—

Mr. M. S. Makbul Ahmad.

Mr. S. Raza Ali.

Mr. S. Zahur Ali.

Professor S. V. Rangasamy Ayengar.

H.H. the Raja of Baliapattam.

Mr. Jyoti P. Banerjea.

Mr. A. R. Bountra.

Mr. J. Chatterjee, Vidyabinode.

Dr. W. Cohn.

Mr. L. A. Fanous.

Mr. J. E. Friend-Pereira.

Mr. Maung Gyi, B.A.

Dhawan L. T. Lal.

Mr. C. J. Marzetti.

Mr. B. V. Mehta. Mr. M. G. Mehta.

Rai Sahib B. S. Misra.

Mr. N. G. Munro.

Dr. Johannes Nobel.

Count Leon Ostrorog.

Mr. Saya Tun Pé.

Babu M. B. Rath.

Khan Mahomed Seljuqi.

Mr. G. Shankar.

Pandit Maya Shankar.

Mr. Hirnanda Shastri. Professor Dr. Max Walleser. During the past year 19 resident members have been

elected, a record number for some years.

Mr. F. Anderson.

Mr. S. N. Buchia.

Lady Deane.

Mr. C. S Elgood.

Mr. C. W. Gurner.

Mr. U. A. Hamid.

H. E. Baron Hayashi.

Mr. G. E. Hay.

Rev. G. S. Hitchcock.

Mr. R. L. Hobson.

Professor D. R. Simon.

Babu A. P. Singh.

Mr. P. S. Subbarayen.

Mr. R. Tarini-Charan.

Miss E. G. Kemp.

Mr. Paul King.

Mr. C. C. Polhill.

Mr. A. Sefi.

Sir Malcolm Seton.

Mr. A. Waley.

Mr. H. Weld-Blundell.

Mr. A. N. G. Whymant.

Mr. G. Willoughby-Meade.

The following 151 non-resident members have joined the Society:--

Mr. M. H. Abd-al-Razek.

Mr. Md. S. Ahmad.

Mr. W. F. Albright.

Maj. C. H. Armsbruster.

Mr. P. Bagchi.

Mr. C. A. Bamber.

Mr. S. K. Banerjee.

Mr. A. K. Banerji.

Mr. A. P. Banerji.

Mr. P. N. Banerji.

Mr. P. Basu.

Mr. S. T. Bhandare.

Mr. C. Bhandari.

Mr. D. K. Bhardraj.

Mr. B. Bhattacharya.

Mr. B. Bhushan.

Mr. H. G. S. Bivar.

Mr. J. Bowstead.

Mr. B. Bushan.

Mr. S. N. Bushia.

Mr. W. B. J. Carmichael

Mr. H. C. Chakladar

Mr. S. Charan.

Dr. J. Charpentier.

Mr. B. K. Chatterjea.

Mr. S. P. Chatterjee.

Mr. N. C. Chatterji.

Mr. P. N. Chowdhuri.

Mr. M. G. Coèdes.

Mr. S. A. Cook. Mr. W. S. Cotterill.

Mr. M. B. L. Dar.

Mr. J. N. Das.

Dr. C. N. Davis.

Mr. R. Dayal.

Mr. L. N. Deb.

Capt. R. C. Dent.

Mr. G. Dhar.

Mr. A. S. Doniach.

Mr. G. R. Driver.

Pandit K. N. Dube.

Mr. R. F. Eden.

Mrs. C. Edwards.

Mr. J. H. F. Evans.

Mr. H. Farmer.

Mr. H. J. Frampton.

Mr. J. S. Furnivall.

Mr. K. J. S. Gahlot.

Mr. K. Gangananda Sinha.

Mr. M. H. Ghorpaday.

Mr. S. C. Ghosh.

Mr. S. K. Ghosh.

Mr. P. Gopinath.

Mr. K. M. Gupta.

Mr. P. L. Gupta.

Mr. K. P. Guru.

Mr. R. M. Gwynn. Mr. M. Habib.

Mr. M. A. K. Haidari.

Professor A. Haq.

Mr. K. K. Handiqui.

Mr. Md. G. Hassan.

Mr. G. E. Hay.

Mr. A. H. Hill.

Mr. M. Ishaque.

Mr. M. H. K. Iyengar.

Mr. H. E. Jagoe.

Deo of Jashpur.

Mr. M. S. W. Khan.

Pandit G. Krishna.

Mr. H. M. Lett.

Mr. R. Levy.

Mr. J. M. Maitra.

Mr. R. C. Maitra.

Mr. N. G. Majumdar. JRAS. JULY 1921. Mr. J. Mann.

Mr. J. Martin.

Mr. L. N. Mathur.

Mr. O. B. Mathur.

Baron Gerard de Maydell.

Babu J. Mazumdar.

Mr. I. Misra.

Mr. D. B. R. Mudalier.

Mr. H. N. Mukerjea.

Mr. B. L. Mukerjee.

Mr. A. P. Mullick.

Mr. A. C. Nag.

Mr. N. C. Nandi.

Mr. S. Narain.

Mr. B. Narayan.

Mr. K. G. Natesa.

Mr. B. N. Navagire.

Mr. Narpal Singh.

Mr. V. M. Nowle.

Pandit R. Ojha.

Mr. H. J. Oulsnam.

Mr. F. Pal.

Mr. H. M. Paterson.

Mr. M. B. Pithawalla.

Mr. C. A. Pittar.

Mr. B. G. Poror, Zemindar.

Mr. D. Porter.

Mr. C. Proctor.

Mr. Qureshi.

Mr. S. S. Raghavan. Mr. C. K. Raja.

Mr. K. R. Ramabhadran.

Mr. R. K. Rao.

Mr. T. R. G. Rao.

Mr. Md. A. Rashid.

Mr. S. C. Ray.

Mr. W. H. Rees.

Mr. D. Rege.

Mr. B. Reu.

Mr. G. N. Roerich.

Mr. R. Saksena.

Professor S. C. Sarkar.

Mr. P. Sarkar.

Mr. V. L. Sastri.

Col. R. C. F. Schomberg.

Mr. J. Scotland.

Mr. M. J. Seth.

Mr. A. S. Sewell.

Mr. A. K. Sharma.

Mr. A. Siddiqi.

Mr. A. R. Siddiqi.

Mr. M. S. Sidersky.

Sahib Bahadur R. Hardeo Singh.

Professor M. Sinha.

Babu M. Sinha.

Mr. W. Sinha.

Professor G. Sircar.

Mr. K. N. Sitaram.

Mr. W. E. Soothill.

Mr. W. B. Stevenson.

Mr. W. Q. Taggart.

Mr. G. C. Tambe.

Mr. M. K. Thin.

Rev. D. G. Thirtle.

Mr. H. M. Tin.

Mr. C. G. C. Trench.

Right Rev. A. Trollope Bishop

(in Corea).

Mr. W. G. Urdhwareshe.

Mr. G. N. S. Varma.

Mr. S. Varma.

Mr. A. R. C. Westlake.

Mr. L. M. Wynch.

Mr. D. Yellin.

Major L. M. Yetts.

Mr. Md. Yusuf.

Mr. Md. Yusuff.

The total number of new members now stands at 170. When the 62 lost to the Society by death, resignation, or removal have been deducted there remain a total of 108 new resident and non-resident members. Part of this satisfactory state of affairs must be ascribed to the success of the appeals signed by the President that were sent to all members asking them to enlist new members. It is to be hoped that the further appeals that have been issued to the ruling Princes of India, to Church Dignitaries, to Heads of Universities and Public Schools, and to Coaches for the Indian Civil Service may also bear fruit.

Lectures

The following lectures were delivered during the Session, most of them illustrated by excellent slides:—

October 12, 1920. "The Marsh Arabs of Mesopotamia," by Dr. Patrick Buxton.

November 9, 1920. "Aurungzab Vindicated," by Sirdar Ikbal Ali Shah.

December 14, 1920. "Some Arabic Poets of the Abbasid Period," by Dr. R. Nicholson.

January 18, 1921. "The Buddhist Temples of the Diamond Mountain of Korea," by Miss H. C. Bowser.

February 8, 1921. "Under Bolshevik Rule in Russian Turkestan," by Miss R. Houston.

March 8, 1921. "Nomad Tribes of South-West Persia," by Mr. D. A. Lane (late of South Persia Rifles).

April 12, 1921. "Baghdad to Teheran: a new variation of an old theme," by Mr. R. Levy.

Dr. R. Blake, of Harvard University, will read a paper on June 14th entitled "The Sources for the History of Georgian Ecclesiastical Literature".

Forlong Bequest

The Council approved that Dr. McGovern should deliver a course of lectures on Buddhism in accordance with this bequest.

Books Published by the Society

Lalla-Vakyani. By Sir G. Grierson and Dr. Barnett (Monograph Fund.)

Linguistic Studies of the Himalayas. By Dr. Grahame Bailey. (Monograph Fund.)

Ishkashmi, Zebaki, and Yazghulami. By Sir G. Grierson. (Prize Publications Fund.)

The Ottoman Conquest of Egypt from the Arabic Chronicle of Ibn Iyas. By Colonel Salmon. (Oriental Translation Fund.)

The following Books are in the Press

El-Asatir. By Dr. M. Gaster. (Oriental Translation Fund.)

Bakhtiari Phonology. By Major Lorimer. (Monograph Fund.)

Letting of Rooms.

The Society has now let all its vacant rooms as offices to the following Societies:—

The Anthroposophical Society. The Anglo-Italian Society. The British Italian League. The Central Asian Society.

The Italian Red Cross Society. The Persia Society. The Society Women of Musicians.

Invitations to the Society

An invitation was sent to the Society from the American Oriental Society inviting it to send delegates to the Meeting at Baltimore, 29th-31st March. This the Council was obliged to decline, being unable to find members who could undertake the journey.

Lord and Lady Pentland invited the Council and members of the Society to a Reception on 24th February to meet Lord Reading before his departure for India.

Centenary

The year 1923 will be the Centenary of the Royal Asiatic Society, and a Committee has been formed to celebrate the event and to publish a Centenary Volume. The names of the Committee are as follows:-

Professor Margoliouth (Chair- Mr. L. C. Hopkins. man).

Mr. F. E. Pargiter (General Professor Langdon. Editor).

Mr. C. Otto Blagden.

Dr. B. Gray.

Mr. Griffith.

Sir H. Howorth.

Professor Macdonell.

Dr. R. Nicholson.

Professor Sayce.

and the Honorary Officers of the Society.

The thanks of the Society is due to the Honorary Solicitor, Mr. Alexander Wilson; the Honorary Auditors, Mrs. Frazer and Mr. L. C. Hopkins; and the Official Auditors, Messrs. Price, Waterhouse & Co., for their kind services.

The President inquired whether any member would wish to comment on the report, and Sir Denison Ross spoke in warm terms of the services rendered to the Library of the Society by Mr. Ellis, the Hon. Librarian.

Mr. F. E. PARGITER, proposing the adoption of the Report, said that the characteristic feature of the year had been that of readjustment. It began with their removal to Grosvenor Street. They had had to adapt themselves to the change, and there had been great labour in getting their library put into a workable condition. He was glad to say that owing to the ready co-operation of their officers the work was very nearly completed. Another point of readjustment was the amalgamation with this Society of the Society of Biblical Archæology, which came into active force during the past year. Journal now contained many more articles than formerly on subjects of interest to that Society. The range of their subjects had thus been increased, but the rise in cost of printing had seriously handicapped them in publishing the Journal, so that while they had a larger range of subjects smaller compass to publish papers on they had а This was a very great misfortune in respect to the standing of their Society throughout the whole world. They hoped that things might improve, and they had to bear in mind that during the year they had borne very heavy nonrecurring expenditure for the removal. They might now expect not only to pay their way without difficulty, but also do something in building up reserves to recoup themselves for the money they had laid out. Readjustment was going on not only in their domestic affairs but also in the countries to which they devoted their studies, and he might be permitted to say in regard to India, the country with which they were most closely connected, that they hoped that the new system of Government, unparalleled in the whole of Asia, would prove a complete success.

Lord Meston, in seconding the Report, said that the past year seemed to have been a fitting successor to those sad, anxious years of war during which the Society kept the torch of Asiatic scholarship alight, and when there seemed to be in the world very little light indeed except flames from the Nether Regions. He took that opportunity on behalf of the

European residents in India, and more particularly the members of the Public Services there to thank the Society for the ideals it had maintained, the wide range of cultured interests it had served, and for the link that it provided for fellowship between Europeans and their Indian fellow subjects. The link was between East and West. It was unfortunately true that the traditions of scholarship which used to attach to the Public Services in India had in recent years become a little thin. When he first went to the United Provinces there were actually serving there Vincent Smith, F. S. Growse, William Irvine, Dr. Hoey, William Crook, James Kennedy. and Howell, the Arabic scholar. That was a group of men belonging to the I.C.S. in one province, and apart from them there were distinguished names in the educational and other services, men like Griffiths and Venis. For a group of scholars of similar character they would look in vain to-day in any province of India, and probably in the whole of India. It was not, he thought, that the spirit had gone; it was not that the present day civilians took their mental recreations in less reputable fields, or devoted themselves to more transitory things. It was due to the pressure of life, the absorbing claims of absolute duty, the anxiety as to ways and means. The opportunities for leisure were scanty, and he was afraid that the pleasant communion with the older school of cultured Indians was largely a thing of the past. It had been replaced to some extent by association with Indians who thought a good deal more of the future than of the past. So long as controversy raged to the extent to which it had raged in India in the last few years, and so long as political power was engaged in shifting its balance, it could hardly be expected that the Indian Services would add in the same degree as they used to the material of scholarship which the Society collected. It was indeed a matter to be profoundly grateful for that the work during this transitional period was being carried on by older men who had retired from active work in India, who had according to Hindu ideas reached the stage

of Sunyasi, and who were giving the Society the benefit of their wisdom. He believed that things would settle down, and that when the Services settled down there would be a revival of learning and its members would turn again to those regions of ancient race and tradition which had such a mysterious fascination for the human mind, and which opened up, especially in India, such avenues of fresh investigation. Meanwhile there was something of a new force in a group of young Indians, many of them under the banner of that Society, acquainted with the methods of modern criticism, exploring fields with honesty and sincerity, and acquiring an enthusiasm for research. Their number was not large but it would grow, and he regarded the uprising of this school as one of the best fruits of the new Nationalist movement. It was just here that the Society could enhance its value by maintaining the bond of culture between Englishm n and the new Indian critical school of culture. It was by this road that the Society could do so much to bring the East and West together, and to diminish the wholly fictitious importance of racial differences. The Society had earned the sincere gratitude of all who wished to bring about a better understanding between East and West. Long might it continue to flourish.

The PRESIDENT then delivered the following speech:—
I propose that His Royal Highness the Prince of Wales be invited to become a Vice-Patron of this Society.

I also propose that Lord Reading be invited to hold the same post during his tenure of office as Viceroy, with the hope that all succeeding Viceroys may follow his example. I propose Lord Chelmsford as Resident Member.

During the past year the Society has had to mourn the loss of several of its members whose efforts had done much to raise the Society to the high position that it holds in the world of learning. I will mention first Dr. Oliver Codrington, one of our Honorary Vice-Presidents, the distinguished Numismatist, whose work for the Library will always be held

in gratitude. Last June our late Hon. Treasurer, Mr. James Kennedy, passed away, but his devotion to the interests of the Society and his skilful management of its finances will not be forgotten. Sir Charles Lyall, the brilliant Arabic scholar, and Dr. Drummond Anderson, a great authority in Indian languages, leave our Council the poorer for their expert advice.

It is with great regret that I have to record the illness of our Director, Sir Richard Temple, whose strenuous activities during the war led to a breakdown last December. We have, I am glad to say, encouraging reports from Switzerland as to his progress, and trust that before long the Society may have the benefit of his presence again.

Our Honorary Secretary, Dr. F. W. Thomas, has been spending six months in India, where he has borne the interests of the Society in mind and has been made an Honorary Member of the Bombay Branch of the R.A.S. I am able to read to you his last interesting letter. During his absence Mr. Longworth Dames filled his place until compelled to give up his duties through illness. Our best thanks are due to Mr. Grant Brown for the time and care he has given to our finances and the means to improve them; also to Mr. Ellis, who has re-arranged the whole Library on the change of premises. He worked here during both summer and Easter holidays.

Mr. Robert Mond has kindly consented to become our Joint Hon. Treasurer, and the Society hopes to draw benefit from his financial experience. Ill-health detains him in the South of France.

At the end of last June, to our regret, Miss Hull resigned her post as Secretary, but we were fortunate in securing Miss Ella Sykes as her successor, and I wish to commend the work of the staff during the past year.

During this period the *Journal* has maintained its high reputation, and has been enriched by articles from the pens of Sir George Grierson, Mr. Longworth Dames, Professor

Langdon, Professor Sayce, and Mr. L. C. Hopkins, to name only a few of our distinguished contributors. One of the features of the *Journal* has been its reviews of Oriental literature, and here I must thank the many gentlemen who so generously give their time to this work. The Council thoroughly realize their responsibility with regard to the contents of the *Journal*.

Several valuable lectures on Oriental subjects have been delivered during the Session, Dr. R. Nicholson's paper on "Some Arabic Poets of the Abbasid Period" attracting considerable attention.

I have now the pleasant duty of thanking the various friends who have presented gifts to the Society. An anonymous donor sent £100 to increase the salary of the Secretary, Prince Vajiranana of Siam gave £60 in celebration of his sixtieth birthday, and Sir R. Temple and Mr. H. Beveridge sent sums of £10 each, as they were unable to respond to the appeal to enlist new members, and other donations have been received. Colonel Knox-Niven has presented an interesting coat of Oriental chain armour which was dug up near the reputed site of the grave of Bucephalus in the Panjab, and which can be seen in the Council Room. From the Dutch Government we have received a most interesting volume on the Temple of Barabudur.

The mention of these gifts leads me to the subject of the finances of the Society. Our securities have been almost entirely expended on the costly move from Albemarle Street to these premises, and though the India Office has just increased its annual grant by a most welcome addition of a hundred guineas, yet, owing to the greatly enhanced cost of printing, that sum does not nearly cover the outgoings of the Society, although strict economy is practised.

Owing to this fact the Council, after much deliberation, are recommending that the non-resident members' subscriptions be raised from 30s. to 2 guineas, and that there should be a lower compounding fee with a sliding scale according

to age, hoping thereby to attract members to compound. A leaflet, explaining the reasons for the contemplated change in the non-resident members' subscription, has been sent to every member, and the question will be finally settled at an Extraordinary General Meeting on the 5th July.

You have listened to the list of books published by the Society during the past year, but these have so depleted the various funds at its disposal, the Oriental Translations, the Monograph, and the Prize Publication Funds, that at present the Society is quite unable to undertake the publication of any new works. This is most unfortunate, because, though the high prestige of the Society is maintained by means of our great Journal known throughout the learned world, yet much of it rests upon the books we publish. Mr. Arbuthnot, by leaving a generous bequest to found the Oriental Translations Fund, has enabled the Society to bring out many works which no ordinary publisher would take, fearing that such a venture would land him in loss. These facts embolden me to appeal to our members to subscribe to these funds. Learned men are, as a rule, poor, so it rests with others who being unable to devote themselves to such studies, yet realize their importance to the world and can materially assist. In the early days of our Society men of rank and position were ready to act the part of Macaenas to those who were dowered with more brains than cash. May I venture to hope that there are still some among us who rank things spiritual higher than things material? It would be a fitting way to celebrate our Centenary in 1923 by bringing out some learned works that otherwise might never be given to the world.

I wish to give our best thanks to those who have been so successful in recruiting new members. To-day we have elected 30 non-resident members presented by one member.

The relations between East and West are changing. This change should heighten the interest taken in those Oriental studies of which this Society seeks to be the interpreter. More and more the East reveals its secrets to us. Whilst

I am addressing you the Imperial Crown Prince of Japan is being received by their Majesties the King and Queen. The nation welcomes H.R.H. as representing our ally during the late war. No one at the time of the Treaty of Vienna could have foreseen that in the struggle for sanctity of treaties an Eastern Power would have played a prominent part. We cannot show our appreciation in a better way than by studying the history in its widest aspect of those Oriental nations with whom our relations will always, I trust, become ever more friendly.

Field-Marshal His Royal Highness the Duke of Connaught has graciously consented to become a Vicepatron.

The American Academy of Arts and Sciences has invited the Society to send delegates to its meeting at Boston on 5th October. Dr. Cowley, Professor Langdon, Mr. Shuttleworth, and Mr. Weld-Blundell have accepted the invitation.

A notice was sent to all members calling a Special General Meeting on 5th July to settle the question of raising the non-resident subscription. It was however decided to postpone the matter owing to the hardship involved to Indian members by the exchange.

Lady Lyall has presented the Journals of the Society of Biblical Archwology belonging to the late Sir Charles Lyall, and Mrs. Waite has given some Journals.

The Executors of the late Dr. Codrington have assigned to the Society the copyright of his Manual of Musulman Numismatics.

Miss Manning has offered a framed photograph of the bust of Mr. Thomas Manning, the friend of Charles Lamb and the first Englishman to visit Lhasa, and Mr. George Tate has forwarded a map of the traditional site of Alexander's Victory over Porus.

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Gujarati Phonology

By R. L. TURNER

(Concluded from p. 305.)

HISTORY OF THE CONSONANTS

34. The general evolution of the PI consonants, together with the special question of dialectical differences arising therefrom, has been set forth by Dr. Bloch.¹ It will be sufficient here to note the chief features in that development, with special reference to Gujarātī.

The most notable feature throughout has been the progressive enfeeblement in the articulation of the stops. This has shown itself in three ways: (1) the loss of final stops; (2) the assimilation of the first to the second in a group of stops (both these phenomena have their origin in the implosive pronunciation of stops in these positions); (3) the sonorization of intervocalic breathed stops and eventual disappearance of all intervocalic stops. In the case of the aspirates only the h- sound remained. The earliest signs of this process are already visible in the language of the Rigveda, where IE gh and gh before a palatal vowel regularly, and IE gh under certain conditions, are represented by h.

The course of this evolution was continuous; but, for the sake of convenience, it may be divided into four stages, corresponding roughly with the four main documentary periods: (1) early Middle Indian comprising the language up to the inscriptions of Asoka; (2) the literary Prakrits up to a few centuries before Hemacandra; (3) early Modern Indian including the OWR texts; (4) Modern Gujarātī.

- 35. In the first stage the loss of all final consonants and the assimilation of consonant groups has been carried through, with certain exceptions noted below. The cerebrals, which in PI are practically confined to cases where a dental has become a cerebral owing to the influence of neighbouring s, or in the case of n also of a neighbouring r, have greatly increased in number. This increase is perhaps due to the influence of Dravidian speakers, whose languages clearly differentiated the two series. It can be noticed (1) in the increasing number of assimilations: e.g. *dandra- (: $\delta \epsilon \nu \delta \rho o \nu$) > danda- > danda-G. dad fine; (2) in apparently spontaneous change of > dental to cerebral: e.g. daś- > das-, G. dasvā bite, pat- > pat-, G. padvā fall; (3) in a large number of new words. Distinctive dialectical differences of this period which have survived are:
- (1) st, sth, st, sth and stop + r remain unassimilated in the N.W. group. In Gujarātī they are assimilated.
- (2) \acute{s} , \acute{s} , \acute{s} appear as \acute{s} in the west, as \acute{s} in the east (in one Eastern Prakrit $\acute{s} < \acute{s}, \it{s} < \it{s}, \it{s}$), and are differentiated in the N.W. (Piśāca) group as $\acute{s} < \acute{s}, \it{s} < \it{s}$. Gujarātī has only \emph{s} (G. \acute{s} is a secondary development).
- (3) ks appears as cch in the S.W., kkh in E. and N. Gujarātī has kkh.
- (4) sm, sm appear as ss in N.W., mh elsewhere. Gujarātī has mh.
- (5) In the group r or r + dental, the dental becomes a cerebral in E., remains in W. But in this case the

mutual borrowing has been so old and extensive that it is almost impossible to assign the modern languages definitely to one development or the other. The predominant Gujarātī treatment appears to be the dental.

36. In the second stage the sonorization and loss of intervocalic stops is carried through. Before complete disappearance they seem to have become a y-sound, which either remained or disappeared without trace. Intervocalic -m- has, for the most part, become a nasalized labial spirant -v-. n, except perhaps initially, has become n, which may have represented, as now in Gujarātī, a nasalized cerebral spirant.

Dialectical differences of this period are:

- (1) Intervocalic dentals in some N.W. (Piśāca) languages have become l. In Gujarātī they are lost with the other stops.
- (2) Intervocalic -m is retained in Gujarātī under certain conditions.
- 37. In the third stage double consonants, the result of earlier assimilation, are shortened, and the preceding short rowel lengthened. The same process is observable in the group nasal + consonant, where the nasality is pronounced coincidently with the vowel, which is lengthened. This re-establishes the PI system of intervocalic stops.

Dialectical differences of this period are:

- (1) Double consonants are retained in Panjābī and other N.W. languages. They are simplified in Gujarātī.
- (2) Breathed stops preceded by a nasal are voiced in Pañjābī. They remain unchanged in Gujarātī.
- (3) v- and -vv- remain w-sounds in W., but become b in E. Gujarātī has a w-sound.
- (4) n has become n in E., but is retained in W. (except initially or when doubled). Gujarātī retains -n.
- (5) Intervocalic -l- has become -!- in W. and N. but remains in E. Gujarātī has !.
 - 38. In the fourth stage the loss of final MI vowels

and of certain short vowels between consonants has re-established the PI system of final stops and of unassimilated consonant groups: e.g. G. $v\bar{a}t$, $n\bar{a}s$, $\bar{a}g$, $\bar{a}r$, etc.; $v\bar{a}tno$, $\tilde{a}gn\bar{u}$, karto, $l\bar{a}gto$, $k\bar{a}tr\bar{\imath}$, etc.

39. These changes have resulted in the following Gujarātī consonant system:—

Stops: k, kh, g, gh, t, th, d, dh, t, th, d, dh, p, ph, b, bh.

Affricates: c, ch, j, jh.

Continuants: s, ś, y, v, r, l, l, h.

Nasals: \dot{n} , η , n, m.

Any of these consonants can stand finally as well as initially and between vowels, except \hat{n} , n, and l, which do not occur initially. They can also, as explained above, be combined in groups. Notes as to their sounds will be found under the heading of their particular classes below.

The final stops are already implosive, and though in deliberate speech the first members of consonant groups are sometimes given an implosive-explosive articulation, e.g. $\bar{a}g^{a}th\bar{\imath}$, they are more usually pronounced implosively, when a voiced stop is assimilated to a breathed, e.g. $\bar{a}gth\bar{\imath}$ > [akthi]. How far this process has gone can be seen in isolated forms like accher $\frac{1}{2}$ seer $<\bar{a}d(h)\hat{s}\bar{e}r$ (: $\bar{a}dh$ $\frac{1}{2}$), where the results of the assimilation are not continually being replaced by analogy, as in the case of words like $\bar{a}gth\bar{\imath}$ beside $\bar{a}gno$, etc.

The same forces, therefore, still appear to be at work which caused the profound modification of the original PI consonant system.

ASPIRATION

40. The Gujarātī aspirates agree in the main with the Sanskrit. But there are some divergences. These may be divided into two classes: A. those which are common to all the ModI languages (except Singhalese, which has lost all aspirates) and whose modern form is represented in Prakrit as opposed to Sanskrit; and B. those which have

their origin in Gujarātī itself, though it may be as the result of tendencies which have found independent expression in other languages.

A. The first class have been discussed by Dr. Bloch 1; his examples from Marāṭhī can be paralleled for the most part from Gujarātī: e.g. khāpriyā crust of mucus in the nose (kurpara-), khāļo (kīlu-, khīla-), phanas jack-fruit (panasa-), pharšī axe (parašu-), phāso trap (pāśa-). bhūsū chaff (buṣa-), khēļvū play (krīḍ-). For Skt. kubja-, kubhra- G. has only the unaspirated form kubdū humpbacked (: M. khujā, khubā, kubḍā), and for badara-, bōr, bōrdā (: M. bhēr).

There is as yet nothing to add to Dr. Bloch's conclusions that, whereas bh- may represent PI bh-, which in the presence of s or r has become b in Sanskrit, the aspiration in other cases is due to the presence of s or r in the same word, or to other special causes such as contamination with another root.

In the interior of the word there seems to have been an ancient correspondence between mbh and mb, which is reflected in G. $\bar{\partial}!\bar{a}b(h)o$ ($lambat\bar{e}$). $p\bar{a}lkh\bar{\imath}$ litter (paryanka, M. $p\bar{a}lk(h)\bar{\imath}$) is almost certainly a loanword.

- B. In the second class there are numerous cases of loss of aspiration.
- (1) A final aspirate (particularly when there is another aspirate in the word) loses its aspiration. This, as Dr. Bloch remarks, is probably much more common in all the modern languages than their orthography would lead one to suppose. My own observation in Nepālī has led me to the conclusion that all aspirates finally or immediately preceding another consonant lose their aspiration in that language, although they are frequently shown in writing. This is doubtless due to the usual conservatism of writing and to the influence of connected forms where the aspirate is not in these positions. The deaspirated

¹ Bloch, § 84.

forms have a reverse influence also on the non-final aspirates of connected forms. Of the three languages which I have had the opportunity of observing—Nepālī, Gujarātī, and Hindī—the first two, which tend to neglect h altogether (intervocalic -h- has disappeared entirely in Nepālī and largely in Gujarātī), also most thoroughly carry out the deaspiration of final consonants; while Hindī, which preserves intervocalic -h-, tends to preserve final aspirates as well. In any case, the aspiration of Gujarātī aspirates in any position is much feebler than in Hindī.

Examples of final deaspiration in Gujarātī are: $b\bar{u}j$ appreciation (budhya-), $d\bar{u}j(h)$ anger ($d\bar{a}hya$ -), $bh\bar{\imath}k(h)$ alms ($bhik_{\bar{\imath}}\bar{a}$), $bh\bar{\imath}k(h)$ ($bubhuk_{\bar{\imath}}\bar{a}$), $j\tilde{a}g(h)$ thigh ($jangh\bar{a}$), $g\bar{u}j$ penis (guhya-), $s\bar{a}j$ ($sandhy\bar{a}$), $\bar{\imath}t$ brick ($ist\bar{a}$), $\bar{\imath}t$ camel (ustra-), $l\bar{u}t(h)$ vertical support of an oil-press (Pkt. latthi-), kod(h) (kustha-), $dh\bar{\imath}t$ (dhrsta-), $k\bar{a}t(h)$ timber ($k\bar{u}stha$ -), ad-: $\bar{a}dh$ (ardha-).

(2) As in Nepālī, so also in Gujarātī the aspirate immediately before another consonant tends to be deaspirated (although, as with finals, this is not always shown in writing); e.g. bujrā understand (budhyatē), but bujhāvvā explain; samajvā understand (: H. samajhnā).

From forms such as these deaspirated consonants have been introduced into forms where the consonant, being followed by a vowel, would not phonetically lose its aspiration; e.g. $samj\bar{a}v\bar{u}$ after $samajv\bar{u}$, $p\bar{a}lto$ recompense after $palatv\bar{u}$ return (? paryasta-), $sik\bar{a}vv\bar{u}$ teach after $sikv\bar{u}$ learn ($siksat\bar{e}$).

GUTTURALS

41. The PI gutturals have not changed their way or place of articulation in Gujarātī; and, where they have subsisted initially or again arisen through the simplification of consonant groups, appear as k, kh, g, gh.

In Northern Gujarātī k, kh, g, before or after i, e, y,

become c, ch, j; e.g. dicro son (dikro), $ch\bar{e}tar$ field $(kh\bar{e}tar)$, $n\bar{a}chy\bar{a}$ thrown $(n\bar{a}khy\bar{a})$, beside $n\bar{a}khv\bar{u}$, $l\bar{a}jyo$ begun $(l\bar{a}gyo)$, beside $l\bar{a}gv\bar{a}$.

PALATALS

42. The PI palatals, represented in Gujarātī now by affricates $[t_{\it f}, t_{\it f}h, d_{\it 5}, d_{\it 5}h]$, must have continued as stops [k'] until intervocalic stops had become y. Otherwise it is hard to account for intervocalic c, etc. [i.e. $t_{\it f}$, etc.], being lost, while sibilants were retained. It had become an affricate by the time the Greeks came into contact with India.² Singhalese preserves -c- as s and -j- as d.

PI ch does not correspond to c as kh to k, etc.; but it represents the first result of the tendency in the language that led to the assimilation of consonant groups, and stands for IE sk. Hence, between vowels it is always doubled -cch-, e.g. chid-: Lat. scindo, gacchati: $\beta \acute{a}\sigma \kappa \omega$. Secondly, Skt. ch often represents PI kş in Sanskritized Prakrit words, e.g. chura-: kṣura-.3

Skt. jh also is a MI rather than a PI sound. In some words it corresponds to ks, and seems to proceed from a dialect which had preserved as a voiced group original IE voiced guttural aspirate + continuant; e.g. jharabeside ksarati, G. jhara trickle.⁴

In the Carotar district the palatals in Gujarātī have become ts, dz, and still further to the north s, z.⁵

CEREBRALS AND DENTALS

43. The IE single series of dentals has, in India, split into two series, dental and cerebral.

The PI cerebrals, having their origin in dentals, were due to contact with s or z.⁶ But in the earliest Sanskrit monuments there are words containing cerebrals derived from dentals under the influence of a neighbouring r or z.⁷

¹ LSI. ix, 2, p. 330.

³ Id., § 131 ff.

⁵ LSI, ix, 2, p. 330.

⁷ Id., §§ 146-7.

² Wackernagel, i, § 119.

⁴ Id., § 141.

⁶ Wackernagel, i, § 145a.

Since, however, the same words, or other words containing dentals under the same conditions, do not always follow this evolution, there appear to have been dialectical differences. In the one group a dental in the presence of r or r becomes a cerebral; in the other it remains. The conditions were probably not quite so simple as this, and there may have been separate isoglosses for different groups like r + dental, r + dental, dental + r, r + vowel + dental.

Whatever the dialectical differences, the words showing a cerebral from a dental in Sanskrit are undoubtedly Sanskritized words borrowed from a dialect or dialects having this cerebral development. It is to be remarked that the majority of these have become part of the common speech material of the ModI languages.

Gujarātī seems to belong to the group in which dentals in the presence of r remained dental; and words showing cerebrals in this position must be considered as early or later borrowings.

A. Dentals remain.

 $\it rt: muo\ (mrta-),\ am\bar{\imath}\ (amrta-),\ k\bar{\imath}dh\bar{\imath}\ (krta-),\ gh\bar{\imath}\ (ghrta-).$

rth: pɔhla (prthula-).

rd: mau (mrdu-), haiyũ (hrdaya-).

rdh: gīdh (gṛdhra-).

 $rnt: k \tilde{a} tv \tilde{a} \text{ spin } (k rntati), g \tilde{a} thv \tilde{a} \text{ } (grathn \tilde{a} ti).$

 $rt: k\bar{a}t\bar{u}$ knife $k\bar{a}tl\bar{i}$ thin slice $k\bar{a}tro$ crack in skin (\sqrt{kart} -), $k\bar{a}tar$ scissors ($kartar\bar{i}$), $dhut\bar{a}ro$ ($dh\bar{u}rtu$ -), $v\bar{a}t$ talk ($v\bar{a}rtt\bar{a}$).

 $rth: c\bar{\circ}th\bar{u}$ fourth $(\hat{c}aturtha-)$, $s\bar{a}th\bar{\iota}$ companion $(s\bar{a}rthin-)$.

 $rd: p\bar{s}dv\bar{u}$ (pramardati), $p\bar{u}dv\bar{u}$ (pardatē), $\bar{a}d\bar{u}$ ginger ($\bar{u}rdra$ -), $d\bar{u}dar$ frog (dardura-).

rdh: ādh ad- (ardha-), vadhvā increase, vadhāro increase, vadhāī good news, vadhāvvā welcome ceremoniously on arrival (vardha-).

r in preceding syllable: $p\bar{\epsilon}hl\bar{u}$ (prathama-), $bh\bar{a}\bar{\imath}$ ($bhr\bar{u}t\gamma$ -), $gr\bar{u}td\bar{\imath}$ knot in a woman's upper garment (grantha-).

tr: rāt night (rātri-), ratādhļā night-blind (*rātry-andha-), khēt (kṣētra-), pūt (putra-), sutār (sūtradhāra-), tōdvā (trōṭayati).

dr: $n\bar{i}d$ sleep ($nidr\bar{a}$), $d\bar{a}m$ cash (dramma-), $\bar{u}da$ bluish (udra-).

dhr: gidh (grdhra-), vādhar leather thong (vadhru-).

B. Dentals become cerebrals.

rt, etc.: $s\tilde{a}kad$ difficulty (sankata-: krta-), nad low-caste man (nata-: nrt-), bhad warrior (bhata-: bhrt-), sadva rot (satati: sradti), kadva bitter (katuka-: Lith. kartus bitter), kad (kati-: Gk. $\kappa\omega\lambda\hat{\eta}$), jad cold (jada-: Lat. gelu), ghado pot (ghata-: Germ. gelte), madda corpse (mrta-), nivadva turn out intr. (nirvrta-), kuda dishonest ($\kappa\bar{u}ta$ -: Gk. $\kappa v p \tau \delta s$), pudo bundle padal web (puta-patala-: Eng. fold), phutva be broken (sphutyati: Germ. spalten).

gth: kuhādo axe < ?*kudhāra-(kuthāra-: Lat. culter). <math>gd: gud molasses (guda-: Germ. klotz).

rdh: jad foolish (jadhu-: Lat. gurðus).

rtt: ãto twist (aṭṭati: ārtta-), māṭī (mṛtti-), kuṭvā beat (kuṭṭati: kṛt-), -vaṭ at end of compounds (vṛtti-), e.g. athōṭī skill (hasta-vṛtti-), dēvaṭ generosity.

rnd or rnd: mãdvũ arrange (maṇḍa-:mṛdu-), khãdvū pound (khaṇḍa-: Lith. skéldéti burst), gãḍ anus (gaṇḍa-: Lat. glans).

 $rt: bh\bar{a}t \text{ minstrel } (bhatta-: bhartr-), \bar{a}to \text{ flour } (atta-: Gk. \dot{a}\lambda\acute{e}\omega), v\bar{a}t \text{ path } (vartman-), v\bar{a}t \text{ wick } (varti-).$

rd: chādvā (chardayati).

rdh: vādhvā cut (vardhayati).

r in preceding syllable: pad- (prati) in padchāyo, padthar, padpuch, padvo, etc.; padhvū read (pathati: prathati), gāth knot (grantha-), pīdlo round lump of clay (pinda-: Eng. flint), tutvū (trutyati).

dr: $d\tilde{a}do$ handle (danda-: Gk. $\delta \acute{e}\nu \delta \rho o\nu$), $\tilde{a}d$ testicle (anda-: perhaps O.Sl. jedro testicle).

The frequent noun-suffix -ad, -do, $-d\bar{o}$, $-d\bar{a}$ is perhaps an extension of -rt->-ad- of common words like krta-, vrta-, dkrta-, etc. (cf. Skt. vikata-, sankata-), or of the suffix of sakrt-, avata- (<*avrta-: avar). Cf. Skt. $karkatik\bar{a}$, markata-.

A comparison of the two series above shows that while all the words with cerebrals are found in all the modern languages (except mṛtti-, which in its Marāṭhī form retains the dental), and mostly occur in literary Sanskrit with the cerebral treatment, that is to say, owe their wide extension to general early borrowing, those with dentals are not all so found, particularly derivatives from vardh- increase and kart- cut.

44. In another series of words in Sanskrit earlier dentals are found represented by cerebrals without assignable cause; e.g. atati, udumbara, beside atati, udumbara- (G. âbar). This list grows with time, and the number of these cerebrals is greatly increased in MI and ModI. Lists of words and attempts at explanation are given by Dr. Bloch. Such words in Gujarātī are: udvā fly (uddayati), dasvā (dasati), dābh grass used in religious ceremonies (darbha-), dādo (daṇda-), padvā (patati), tōlā gang (tōlī), ṭuṭvā (truṭyati).

In some cases there appears to be assimilation to a following cerebral ($t\bar{o}l\bar{n}$, and $tutv\bar{n}$ beside $t\bar{o}dv\bar{n}$); but such assimilation is not regular in Gujarātī; e.g. tule, $t\bar{o}l$, $d\bar{u}dh\bar{i}t$, $d\bar{i}th\bar{n}t$, $dh\bar{i}t$, dal, etc.

With regard to this interchange of dentals with cerebrals, three remarks of Sir G. A. Grierson should be noted: "In colloquial Northern Gujarātī there is a strong tendency to dentalize cerebral letters and even to cerebralize dental ones . . . in fact, we may say that,

¹ Bloch, § 118.

in this form of the language, dentals and cerebrals are absolutely interchangeable." 1 "They (uneducated Musalmāns) have also many peculiarities of pronunciation . . . The principal is the incapability of distinguishing between cerebral and dental letters." "Very similarly, the Gujarātī spoken by Pārsīs often exhibits the change of cerebral letters to dentals." 2 Similarly, there is great confusion between dentals and cerebrals in Nepālī, a language fairly close to Gujarātī, as also, according to Sir G. A. Grierson, in the N.W. (Piśāca) group, 3 with which, in its turn, Nepālī seems to have some affinity.

45. In some words Skt. d is represented by l. This is a dialectical development going back to the Rigveda, in which -d- regularly has become -l-. In Gujarātī such words are loanwords; and in most cases they belong to the general Indian speech material, e.g. sōl 16 (sōdaśa), jīl (guda·), nol (noda-, nala-), khēlvā (Pkt. khellaï: ?krīd-). The change is regular in Pāli and Singhalese.

In the numerals where -d- has become r, e.g. $b\bar{a}r$ 12 ($dr\bar{a}da\acute{s}a$), we have probably loanwords from a N.W. dialect, where this treatment is general. The change of -s- to -h- in the numerals points to the same place of origin.

46. The articulation of cerebrals and dentals has not changed except in regard to intervocalic - \dot{q} -, which often becomes - \dot{r} -. Thus, in educated speech $h\bar{a}\dot{q}$, $Lim\dot{q}\bar{\imath}$, but $g\bar{a}r\bar{\imath}$ ($< g\bar{a}d\bar{\imath}$).

In Northern Gujarātī, where confusion of dentals and cerebrals is greatest, intervocalic -d-, -dh- become -r-.

LABIALS

47. The articulation of labials has not changed, except that ph has become a breathed bilabial spirant.

¹ LSI. ix, 2, p. 329.

² Id., p. 331.

³ Id., p. 330.

⁴ Id., p. 330.

NASALS

- 48. (1) \dot{n} has extended its independent existence through the loss of g (final or preceding another consonant) when following a nasalized vowel, e.g. $\tilde{a}\dot{n}$ body $<\tilde{a}g$ ($a\dot{n}ga$ -), $\tilde{a}\dot{n}\dot{n}\tilde{n}$ $<\tilde{a}g\tilde{n}\tilde{n}$ ($a\dot{n}gana$ -). This is parallel with the change of final -mb to -m, e.g. $\bar{a}m$ mango $<\tilde{a}b$ (Pkt. amba-, Skt. $\bar{a}mra$ -).
- (2) PI intervocalic -n- became MI -n- (it is doubtful whether initial n- became n-, although so shown in most of the Prakrits). This n remained in the W. and N.W. groups (it lies as far west in the Himalayas as Kumaon), but has become n again in the central and eastern group. On the other hand, MI -nn- has become generally n. Whatever the value of PI n, Gujarātī n is a nasalized cerebral spirant (as probably was MI n, since then the change of -n- to -n- would be intelligible and parallel with that of -m- to $-\tilde{v}$ -).
- (3) In distinction to the other ModI languages, except Singhalese, Gujarātī has maintained intervocalic -m-under certain conditions.²

y

49. PI y has not survived in Gujarātī. Initially it became j-; in consonant groups it was assimilated with or without influencing the consonant it followed; between vowels it was lost without trace except in the group aya, which became MI \bar{e} .

The sound, however, has reappeared in Gujarātī. Its origin is twofold.

- (1) \tilde{t} , whether of MI or ModI origin, under certain conditions became y (see above, §§ 27 (4), 29).
- (2) It was developed as a glide to avoid hiatus before and after \tilde{i} . This y-glide, as well as the similar v-glide, although not always shown in writing, originated probably as soon as any development (e.g. the loss of an

¹ Cf. Bloch, § 132. ² Turner, JRAS. 1915, p. 21.

intervocalic consonant or the addition of a vocalic suffix to final $\bar{\imath}$ or \bar{u}) left an $\check{\imath}$ or \check{u} in hiatus. They persisted where $\check{\imath}$ and \check{n} were not contracted, e.g. $piy\bar{a}s$ ($pip\bar{a}s\bar{a}$), $siy\bar{a}l$ ($siy\bar{a}la$), $siy\bar{a}lo$ ($sitak\bar{a}la$ -), $v\bar{a}niyo$ ($v\bar{a}nija$ -), $\bar{a}giyo$ (agni-), $k\bar{\nu}yal$ < * $k\bar{\nu}yil$ ($k\bar{\nu}kila$ -). In quick speech however the $\check{\imath}$, instead of developing a glide, itself becomes y as in (1). This is sometimes shown in writing, e.g. $py\bar{a}s$, $sy\bar{a}l$.

"

50. Gujarātī, like the other western languages Marāṭhī, Sindhī, and Pañjāhī, as well as Singhalese and Kaśmīrī,¹ has preserved initial v-, as well as MI -vv- < vv, vy. Words with b are loans from the central and eastern languages.

In pronouncing Gujarātī v the lips are flattened, not rounded; it is therefore [v] rather than [w].

Dental +v

51. Gujarātī here agrees with the language of the Asoka inscription at Girnar, in which tv > tp, whereas elsewhere the treatment was dental, e.g. $b\bar{a}r$ door $(dv\bar{a}ra-)$, $b\bar{\epsilon}$ 2 $(dv\bar{\epsilon})$, $b\bar{i}j$ second day $(dvit\bar{i}ya-)$ but $dun\bar{u}$ twofold (Pkt. $dugun\bar{u}$ -, PI ? $dugun\bar{u}$ -), $\bar{u}bh\bar{u}$ ($\bar{u}rdhva$ -), suffix -pan (-tvana-).

Liquids

52. There were at least three dialects which, as early as the Rigveda, differed in their treatment of IE r and l. One distinguished r and l, the second confused them as r, and the third confused them as l. Gujarātī, like classical Sanskrit, has preserved both r and l; but owing to mutual borrowings between the representatives of the three above dialects, r and l of Gujarātī do not always correspond to original IE r and l, or even to classical Skt. r and l.

The division in Gujarātī differs from that of Sanskrit in the following words:

¹ Bloch, § 150. ² Wackernagel, § 191 ff. ³ Id., § 129.

(1) $l = \text{Skt.} \ r: palān saddle (paryāṇa-), sābhalvā remember, beside sābharvā (samsmarati), nikaļvā come out, ukālvā drive out (niskarōti, utkarōti, also both with kal- in Skt.), ālā-līlā half-wet, half-dry (ārdra-), lōm hair on body, beside rōm (rōman-, lōman-, both in RV), cōlvā rub (cūrṇa-), ghōļvā shake (ghūrṇa-).$

The following are loanwords of more recent date, as shown by (a) change of accent: $p\bar{a}lto$, M. $p\bar{a}lat$ (paryasta-), $p\bar{a}lakh$ cradle, M. $p\bar{a}lkh\bar{a}$ (paryaska-), halad turmeric, M. halad (haridrā); (b) ik > ig: palaing bed, P. palaing (paryaiska-); (c) no compensatory lengthening: bhalā good < bhalla- (bhadra-).

- (2) $r = \text{Skt. } l: p\bar{\imath}par \text{ pepper } (pippal\bar{\imath}), garv\bar{\imath} \text{ drop, beside } galv\bar{\imath} \text{ } (galati).$
- 53. PI r has retained its pronunciation, but PI l between vowels has become l, a change parallel with those of -n- to -n- and -m- to $-\tilde{v}$ -. In pronouncing l the tongue is nearly in the same position as for n; that is to say, the tip is curled backwards, striking the hard palate well behind the ridge of the teeth; but after contact has been made, it is flapped down into the bottom of the mouth. The velum is raised. This l is not marked in the OWR texts, but it must have been already differentiated from l, since -ll- had already become -l-, which remains in Gujarātī.

SIBILANTS

54. Unlike the north-western and eastern dialect groups, Gujarātī does not distinguish PI ś, ṣ, s. All become MI s. This, however, is differentiated in Gujarātī, before and after i and e becoming ś, e.g. śīm (sīmà), karīś (kariṣyāmi, Pkt. karissam).

In Northern Gujarātī s and ś become h in all positions.² In the numerals h appears for s, e.g. $b\bar{a}r < b\bar{a}rah$ ($dv\bar{a}da\acute{s}a$). These are probably N.W. forms.

¹ Tessitori, Ind. Ant., xliii, p. 55.

² LSI. ix, 2, p. 330.

55. $\pm m$, $\pm m$, $\pm m$.

There are three main divergences in the development of the group sibilant + m.

- (1) m is assimilated, perhaps after metathesis; cf. Pali ramsi (raśmi-). This seems to have been a development in the N.W. group. In Gujarātī we have as early common Indian loanwords, $r\bar{u}s$ rein (raśmi-), $visarv\bar{u}$ forget (vismaruti).
- (2) The sibilant, as in the case of sibilant +n, becomes an aspirate, producing the group hm, which, by metathesis of h, becomes mh. Initially (at least when an s or h followed) the h was lost, e.g. Pkt. masāņa-, G. masāņ cemetery (śmaśāna-), Pkt. manisu- (śmuśru-), Pkt. nēha-, G. $n\bar{e}h$ love $(sn\bar{e}ha$ -). In the interior h maintained itself longer, e.g. ghimel an insect < gimha- (grīṣma-), Pkt. amhe (asmē), tumhē (yuşmē), OWR amhe: but it has been lost in Mod. Gujarāti ame, tume. Probably it was -mhin (-smin) which, as an inflectional suffix, became Ap. - α - $h\tilde{\imath}$, OWR ar or -ar, G. -e (otherwise explained as IE -dhi). For a similar phonetic degeneration exceeding that occurring in the body of the word, compare the history of the suffixes -akēna, -akānām, -akāni > Pkt. -aena, $-a\bar{\alpha}\mu\alpha\dot{m}$, $-a\bar{\alpha}i\dot{m}$ > Ap. $-a\hat{e}$, $-a\hat{a}$, $-a\bar{a}\tilde{\imath}$ > G. -e, $-\tilde{a}$, $-\tilde{a}$. Pkt. -ammi (-asmin) would then be a lento-form, and is, perhaps, represented in Gujarātī -ā of yahā, wahā, etc.

Where h remained the group became -mbh- (as with mh from PI hm), e.g. Pkt. sembha-, M. $s\bar{e}b\bar{a}$ (slesman-). msm survives in G. $s\bar{a}bharv\bar{a}$ (samsmarati).

(3) The group became pph, attested in Pkt. bhippha- $(bh\bar{\iota}sma$ -), seppha- $(sl\bar{e}sman$ -). Possibly this represents rather mph from a breathed mh, when it would be parallel with mbh from voiced mh. Gujarātī has $\tilde{u}ph$ heat (usman)-).

SIMPLIFICATION OF DOUBLE CONSONANTS

56. The simplification of double consonants, the result of MI assimilation, did not take place generally till some

time between the stage of the language represented by the Deśināmamālā and the first of the OWR texts.

But in the earliest MI monuments there are some words which show this simplification with compensatory lengthening. The resulting simplified consonants have converged with the PI simple intervocalic stops. These words were, perhaps, borrowed from some dialect where this change was regular (according to the Prakrit grammarians it occurs most frequently in Ardhamāgadhī),¹ and are found in the common inheritance of the modern languages. Examples in Gujarātī are: $k\bar{o}dh$ (kaustha-, Pa. $k\bar{o}tha$ -), $d\bar{a}dh\bar{v}$ beard (damstrikā, Ep. $d\bar{a}dhik\bar{a}$), $k\bar{a}dhv\bar{v}$ draw (kṛṣṭa-), piḍhiyā floor-beam (pīṭha- < *pi-ṣṭha-), $v\bar{e}dh$ finger-ring ($v\bar{e}stat\bar{e}$, Pkt. $v\bar{e}dha\bar{v}$).

For the occasional occurrence of nasal+stop in place of double stop, see above, § 16.

INITIAL CONSONANTS

Stops

57. Initially all stops remain.

k: kān (karņa-), kākh side of body between armpit and hip (kakṣa-), kāp ear-ornament (kalpa-), kām (karman-), kāl (kalyam), kākh belly (kukṣi-), kājal (kajjala-), kīdo (kīḍa-), kōn (ka-).

kh: khaṇvũ dig (khanati), khāvũ eat (khādati), khīj anger (khidyatē), khur (khura-), khēr (khadira-), khāḍ notch (khaṇḍa-).

g: gābhņī (garbhinī), gājvā thunder (garjati), gājar (garjara-),gādhsmell (gandha-),gīdh (gṛdhra-),gū (gūtha-), gūgal (gulgulu-), gōṭh (gōṣṭha-), gōkh (gavūkṣa-), gāvā sing (gāyati), gāl cheek (galla-), gaļvā (galati), gayā (gata-), gaļā throat (gala-).

gh: ghaṇā dense (ghana-), ghām sweat (gharma-), ghās grass (ghāsa-), ghī (ghṛta-), ghōḷvā (ghūrṇa-), ghāṭ contrivance (ghaṭatē), ghumvā roll (ghumaghumāyatē),

¹ Pischel, § 87.

ghāghrī petticoat (ghargharī), ghaḍo (ghaṭa-), ghā wound (ghāta-), ghōḍo (ghōṭaka-).

- c: cãpā seed of jarkfruit (campaka-), cāvvā chew (carvati), cōk (catuska-), citāro (citrakāra-), cūno (cūrṇa-), cāc beak (cañcu-), cībhḍī musk-melon (cirbhaṭikā), ciṇvā (cinōti), cīl (cilla-), cūlo (culli-), cāmḍā leather (carman-), cārvā graze tr. (cārayati), cir (cira-), cusvā (cūṣati), cōr (caura-).
- ch: chāvā thatch (chādayati), chāṇ (chagaṇa-), chiṇvũ split (chinatti), chōḍvā (chōṭayati), chīt (chitti-), chāl bark (challi-), chājvā suit < chadya- (chadayati), chaļ deceit (chala-), chikārḍū a deer (chikkāra-), chachādar mole (chucchundara-), chuvā touch (Dh. chupati, Eng. shove).
- j:janva (janayati), jaļ (jala-), jamvā eat (jamati), jācvā beg (jarcati), jāyh (janghā), jīnā thin (jīrṇa-), jūnā old (jūrṇa-), jūnvā know (jānāti), jāyo son (jāta-), ja net (jāla-), jībh (jihvā).
- $jh: jh\bar{a}lar$ ($jhallar\bar{\imath}$), $jh\bar{a}jhar$ (jharjhara-), $jharv\bar{u}$ (jharat-); see § 42 above.
- t: taļe below (tala-), tātā hot (tapta-), tāro star (tāraka-), tārvā save (tārayati), tāk whey (takra-), tākvā stare at (tarkayati), tābā (tāmra-), tāņvā stretch (tānayati), tīkhā hot (tīkṣṇa-), tārā astringent (tuvara-).
- d: das 10 (daśa-), damvā tire (damayati), dāt (danta-), dādo (danda-), dān generosity (dāna-), diśvā (dṛśyate), dipvā (dīpyatē), dūdh (dugdha-), dublā (durbala-).
- dh: dhan (dhana-), dharvā hold (dharati), dhān growing rice (dhānya-), dhāl dust (dhāli-), dhuṇvā shake (dhunōti), dhar yoke of a bullock (dharā), dhatāro white thorn-apple (dhattāraka-), dhaman (dhamani-).
- p: pahī traveller (pathika-), pāc 5 (pañca), pāt line (pankti-), pīļā (pītala), pākā ripe (pakva-), pūth (pṛṣṭha-), pūt (putra-), pōhļā (pṛṭhula-), paḍo tomtom (paṭaha-), pālav leaf (pallava-).
 - ph: phaļ (phala-), phāgaṇ (pḥālguna-), phūl (phulla-). b: bādh dam (bandha-), bājhvū embrace (badhyatē), указ. остовек 1921.

bōhļā (bahulu-), būdh (buddha-), bāļ child (bāla-), bī (bīja-), bīl (bilva-), bōļvā (bōlayati), bōlvā (bollaka-).

bh: bhāg broken (bhanga-), bhāsvā appear (bhāsayati), bhīkh (bhikṣā), bhūthā (bhṛṣṭu-), bhīgāro (bhṛṅga-), bhasvā bark (bhaṣati), bhāḍār (bhaṇḍāgāra-), bhūmī ground (bhūmi-).

NASALS

- 58. Initial n-, m- remain. n- for MI n-, see § 48.
- $n: nav\bar{u}$ new (nava-), $n\bar{a}th\bar{u}$ fled (naṣṭa-), $n\bar{a}s$ ($n\bar{a}sa$ -), $n\bar{a}m$ ($n\bar{a}man$ -), na not (na), $nis\bar{u}so$ ($nih\dot{s}v\bar{a}sa$ -), $n\bar{\imath}m$ (nimba-), $n\bar{a}mv\bar{u}$ bend ($n\bar{a}mayati$), nal (nala-).

m: māg (mārga-), maļ dirt (mala-), mūļ (mūla-), mākh fly (makṣā), māthū head (mastaka-), mīṭhū (mṛṣṭa-), marvū (mar-), mārvū (mārayati), mājvū (mārjati), mātū drunk (matta-).

y, v, r, l

- 59. Initial y > j; v, r, l remain.
- $y:j\bar{a}m$ space of 3 hours $(y\bar{a}ma-)$, $jujhv\bar{a}$ be brave $(yudhyati), j\bar{u}$ $(y\bar{u}k\bar{a}), j\bar{u}h\bar{i}$ a creeper $(y\bar{u}thik\bar{a}), jav$ barley $(yava-), j\bar{o}g$ $(y\bar{o}gya-), j\bar{e}$ what $(ya-), jav\bar{a}$ go $(y\bar{a}ti), j\bar{o}dh$ $(y\bar{o}ddhr-)$.
- r: rāt (rātri), rāt (rājikā), rāj rule (rājya-), rōrā (rōdati), ruṭhvā be angry (ruṣṭa-), rācvā suit (racyatē), rās pile (rāśi-), rādhvā cook (randhayati), rāk poor (raṅka-), rāḍ (raṇḍā), ras juice (raṣa-), rādhvā block (rundhati).
- l: lāj (lajjā), lākh (laksa-), lādhvā load (labdha-), līpvā smear (limpati), lābā (lamba-), lāhvā take (lābhayati), lasan (laśuna-), lāgvā (lagyati), lavvā speak (lapati), lāc (lañcā).
- $v: v\bar{a}t \ (v\bar{a}rtt\bar{a}), \ v\bar{i}j \ (vidyut), \ v\bar{a}l\bar{u} \ (v\bar{a}luk\bar{a}), \ v\bar{a}jh \ (vandhy\bar{a}), \ vah\bar{u} \ (vadh\bar{u}-), \ v\bar{a}k \ (v\bar{a}kya-), \ v\bar{a}v \ well \ (v\bar{a}p\bar{i}) \ v\bar{a}n \ (varna-), \ v\bar{a}j\bar{u} \ musical \ instrument \ (v\bar{a}dya-).$

SIBILANTS

- 60. \acute{s} , \acute{s} became MI s; s remained. Before and after \check{i} , \check{c} MI s becomes \acute{s} .
- \dot{s} : $s\bar{o}s$ ($\dot{s}\bar{o}\dot{s}a$ -), $s\bar{a}m$ head of pestle ($\dot{s}amba$ -), $s\bar{u}dh$ ($\dot{s}uddhi$ -), $s\bar{a}d$ sound ($\dot{s}abda$ -), $s\bar{u}n\bar{u}$ ($\dot{s}\bar{u}nya$ -), $s\bar{u}kh\bar{u}$ ($\dot{s}u\dot{s}ka$ -), $sasl\bar{u}$ ($\dot{s}a\dot{s}a$ -), $\dot{s}\bar{i}g$ ($\dot{s}r\dot{g}a$ -), $\dot{s}\bar{i}r$ ($\dot{s}rras$ -), $\dot{s}\bar{i}s$ ($\dot{s}rras$ -), $\dot{s}\bar{i}kh$ ($\dot{s}ik\dot{s}a$), $\dot{s}\bar{i}l$ ($\dot{s}\bar{i}la$ -), $\dot{s}\bar{i}l$ ($\dot{s}\bar{i}tula$ -), $\dot{s}\bar{e}l$ ($\dot{s}uilya$ -).
 - s: sād bull (sanda-), sāth 60 (sasti-).
- s: $s\bar{a}kh$ testimony ($s\bar{a}k\bar{s}ya$ -), $sah\bar{\imath}$ ($sakh\bar{\imath}$), $s\tilde{a}th$ rent ($sainsth\bar{a}$), $s\bar{a}j$ preparation (sajja-), sav wholly (sarva-), $s\bar{a}th\bar{\imath}$ ($s\bar{a}rthika$ -), $sivv\bar{\imath}$ sew ($s\bar{\imath}vyat\bar{e}$), $s\bar{\imath}dh\bar{\imath}$ (siddha-), $s\bar{\imath}m$ ($s\bar{\imath}m\bar{a}$).

h remains: hāth (hasta-), hasvũ laugh (hasati), hīn (hīna-), hĩg (hingu-), hīglo (hingula-).

FINAL CONSONANTS

61. The only consonants that could stand at the end of the word in PI were the nasals, visarga, and the unaspirated breathed stops.

The number of Gujarātī words representing Sanskrit words ending in a stop is very small. The latter comprised (1) nom. sing. of some nouns. Where these exist in Gujarātī, most have been reformed as a-stems, e.g. $v\bar{a}niyo < *v\bar{a}nijaka-(vanij-)$. (2) 3rd sing. imperf. and aor. act. of thematic stems, and 2nd and 3rd sing. pres. imperf. and aor. act. of a number of athematic stems. Athematic stems have been replaced by thematic, and the past tenses have disappeared in favour of participial constructions. (3) Neut. sing. of some pronouns. These have been replaced by new forms (cf. Pkt. tani for tat, etc.). (4) Some indeclinable words, e.g. yāvat cid.

-t: vij (vidyut).

Visarga disappeared in MI with lengthening of the preceding vowel. -ah appeared in the sandhi-form $-\bar{o}$ (Mg. $-\bar{e}$). See above, § 25.

Final nasals all disappeared with or without nasalization of the preceding vowel. See above, § 25.

INTERVOCALIC CONSONANTS

- 62. Intervocalic k g, c j, t d are lost.
- -k-: camār (carmakāra-), citāro (citrakāra-), jū (yūkā), nīļiyo (nakula-), śiyāļo (śītakāla-), vērvū scatter (vyākirati), sūdo (śuka-), nom. sing. masc. -o < -akaḥ.
- · -g-: koṭhār (kōṣṭhāgāra-), sɔ̄dhā (samagandha-), śiyāḍ (śṛgālu-), chāṇ (chagana-), mahīrā < *mātṛgarhakam (gṛha-), jōīe ought < *yōgīyatē (yōgyatē), dūṇā (Pkt. duguṇa-), rōyā ill (rōgin-).
 - -c-: sɔ̄ī (saucika-).
- -j-: $vi\bar{a}v\bar{u}$ ($vij\bar{a}yat\bar{e}$), $b\bar{\imath}$ ($b\bar{\imath}ja$ -), $r\bar{a}\bar{\imath}$ ($r\bar{a}jik\bar{a}$), $bh\bar{a}n\bar{u}$ (bhajana-), $bh\bar{o}\bar{\imath}$ ($bh\bar{o}jin$ -), $v\bar{a}niyo$ ($v\bar{a}nija$ -).
- -t-: $p\bar{\imath}l\bar{\imath}$ ($p\bar{\imath}tala$ -), $m\bar{a}$ ($m\bar{a}t_7$ -), $c\bar{\jmath}gn\bar{\imath}$ (caturguna-), $div\bar{e}l < *d\bar{\imath}patailya$ (taila-), $\bar{a}kh\bar{\imath}$ whole ($ak\bar{\imath}ata$ -), $j\bar{\imath}v\bar{\imath}u$ ($dy\bar{\imath}ta$ -). muo (m_7ta -), $gh\bar{\imath}$ (gh_7ta -), $am\bar{\imath}$ (am_7ta -), $k\bar{\imath}dh\bar{\imath}u$ (k_7ta -), $bh\bar{\imath}uvo$ devil-worshipper ($bh\bar{\imath}uta$ -).
- -d-: $r\bar{o}v\bar{u}$ ($r\bar{o}dati$), mau (mrdu-), $p\bar{o}n\bar{u}$ ($p\bar{a}da$ - $\bar{u}na$ -). $ch\bar{a}van$ that $ch < *ch\bar{u}d\bar{a}pana$ -($ch\bar{u}dayati$), $kh\bar{u}v\bar{u}$ ($kh\bar{u}dati$), $kh\bar{e}r$ (khudira-), $av\bar{a}\bar{\imath}$ ($av\bar{u}du$ -), $p\bar{u}$ ($p\bar{u}du$ -).
- 63. Intervocalic b and p became MI-v-, which converged with PI-v-.
- -p-: vāvvā sow (vāpayati), tāvvā (tāpayati), dīvo (dīpa-), lavvā (lapati), govāļ (gōpāla-), paṭhāvvā (prasthā-payati), suvvā < *supati (svapiti), vāv (vāpī), padvo (pratipad-), paḍvāyo wooden support for leg (pratipāda-).
- 64. The aspirates -kh-, -gh-, -th-, -dh-, -ph-, -bh- became MI -h-, which converged with PI -h-.
- -kh-: $sah\bar{\imath}$ ($sakh\bar{\imath}$), $mh\bar{o}$ < *maukha- (mukha-), $s\bar{a}m\bar{\imath}$ in front (sammukha-), $s\bar{o}har$ pleasing < *saukhakara-(sukha-).
 - -gh-: mēh mēudo (mēgha-).
 - -th-: $gh\bar{\epsilon}l\bar{u}$ (grathila-), $p\bar{\epsilon}hl\bar{u}$ (prathama-), $p\bar{s}hl\bar{u}$

(pṛthula-), pahī (pathika-), jūhī (yūthikā), kīhvū (katha-yati), kahānī (kathānaka-), gū (gūtha-).

-dh-: $b\bar{\epsilon}hr\bar{u}$ (badhira-), $dah\bar{t}$ (dadhi-), $vah\bar{u}$ ($vadh\bar{u}$ -), $gh\bar{v}$ ($g\bar{v}dh\bar{u}$), $s\bar{u}h\bar{u}$ banker ($s\bar{u}dhu$ -). In $nag\bar{v}d$ ($nyagr\bar{v}dha$ -), $\bar{v}sad$ (ausadhi-) the d belongs to a suffix -ta-.

-bh-: ghērā (gabhīra-), ahīr (ābhīra-), sohāg (saubhāgya-), lahvā (lābhayati), bhūkh (bubhukṣā), vahālū (vallabha-), sōhvā (śōbhatē), dūtā liberal (durlabha-), dukhāvo pain (duḥkha-bhāva-), pōh dawn < *prabhaka- (prabhā).

- 65. As pointed out above, intervocalic cerebrals (except where -d- -dh- represent primitive Ar. $-\check{z}d$ $-\check{z}dh$ -) are really MI rather than PI sounds. Whatever their origin, MI -t- -d- become d, and -th- -dh- become dh in Gujarātī.
- -t-: sākad (sankaṭa-), kūḍū (kāṭa-), naḍ (naṭa-), bhaḍ (bhaṭa-), saḍvā (śaṭaii), kaḍvā (kaṭuka-), puḍo (puṭa-), kaḍ (kaṭi-), ghaḍo (ghaṭa-), phōḍvā (sphōṭayati), vaḍ (vaṭa-), paḍo (paṭaha-), kōḍ (kōta-), kīḍo (kīṭa-), khaḍ (khaṭa-).
- -d-: cūdo (cūda-), jud (jada-), lād (ladati), dādam pomegranate (dādima-), gādvū (gadayati), vilādī (vidālī).
- -th-: $padhv \tilde{u}$ (pathati), $kuh\bar{a}do < *kudh\bar{a}ro?$ ($kuth\bar{a}ra$ -), $k\bar{o}dh$ ($Pa. k\bar{o}thu$ -).

-dh-. jad stupid (jadhu-).

-n-, -n-, -m-

- 66. The history of intervocalic -n, -n- depended on their position in the word.
- (1) In the body of the word both appear as MI -n-, which remains in Gujarātī.
- - η -: khan (kṣaṇa-), cōgṇũ (caturyuṇa-), ghān (ghrāṇa-), suṇvũ (śṛṇōti), ōkhuṇvũ (avakṣaṇōti), kaṇas (kaṇiśa-).
- -n-: māṇus (mānuṣa-), tāṇvā (tānayati), **d**haṇī (dhanin-), hīṇ (hīna-), ghaṇā (ghana-), ūṇū (ūna-), viṇ (vinā), pāṇī (pānīya-), vakhāṇ (vyākhyāna-), āgṇū (aṅgana-).
 - (2) In inflectional suffixes -n-, -n- became MI anusvāra

or a nasalization of the surrounding vowels. This process is already marked in the Prakrit spellings $-\bar{a}ini$, $-\bar{a}mini$, $-\bar{a}i$ beside $-\bar{a}ni$. In other forms $-\bar{e}na$ (Ap. -eni), $-\bar{a}nani$. n probably represented anusvāra, but the spelling lagged behind the change of pronunciation.

nom. plur. neut. $-ak\bar{a}ni$ > G. $-\tilde{a}$.
instr. sing. $-ak\bar{e}na$ > Ap. -aeni, OWR -ai, G. -e.
gen. plur. $-ak\bar{a}naim$ > OWR $-\tilde{a}$, G. $-\tilde{a}$.
nom. plur. neut. -ini > G. $-\tilde{i}$, in $dah\tilde{i} < dadh\bar{i}ni$.

- 67. The history of intervocalic -m- also depended on its position in the word. It remained (a) immediately after the accent, (b) after the postaccentual syllable (c) before the accent when the preaccentual syllable contained a long vowel. It became $-\tilde{v}$ (a) in the preaccentual syllable, (b) in inflectional suffixes.
 - (1) -m- remains.
- (a) jamvā (jamati), khamvā bear (kṣamatē), vām fathom (vyāma-), vimaļ (vimala-), ugāmvā (udgāmayati), kumļā (kumala-), sīm (sīmā), dhaman (dhamani-), namvā (namati), nāmvā (nāmayati), visāmo (viśrāma-), hhamro (bhramara-), sāmļā (śyāmala-), yām (yrāma-), lōm (lōman-), bhūmī ground (bhūmi-).

bhuî beside bhūmī, jāļ twins (yamala-), gosāî (gōsvāmin-), gahû (gōdhūma-) are loanwords.

(b) pācmū (paŭcama-), sātmū (saptama-), ugman

(b) pārmā (pañcama-), sātmā (saptama-), ugmaņ (udgamana-), āgam source (udgama-), ūjam zeal (udyama-).

 $k\bar{a}dav$ mud (kardama-) is a loanword. The -m of $d\bar{a}dam$ ($d\bar{a}dima$ -) perhaps represents -mb-, since the other languages, where -m- regularly becomes - \bar{v} -, show -m.

- (c) jamāī (jāmātṛ-), samāṇũ (sāmāna-).
- (2) -m- became $-\tilde{v}$ -, from which, later, the nasalization was transferred to the preceding vowel; -v- converged with MI -v- from PI -v-, -p-.

¹ Turner, JRAS., January, 1915, p. 21 ff.

- (a) $k\bar{u}v\bar{u}ro$ ($kum\bar{a}ra$ -), $p\bar{s}dv\bar{u}$ (pramardati), $s\bar{s}pv\bar{u}$ (samarpayati), $s\bar{s}gh\bar{u}$ (samargha-), $s\bar{s}g$ (* $sam\bar{a}nga$ -), $s\bar{s}dh\bar{a}$ (samagandha-).
 - (b) 1st sing. $-\tilde{a}mi > \text{OWR} a\tilde{u}$, G. $-\tilde{u}$, in pres. $kar\tilde{u}$. 1st plur. $-\tilde{a}mah > \text{OWR} a\tilde{u}$, G. $-\tilde{u}$, in fut. $kar\tilde{u}$.

68. Intervocalic -y- was lost.

viāe (vijāyatē), nīm (niyama-), vīmo (viyama-), gāe (gāyatē), samo time (samaya-), sāso doubt (samsaya-), vaļā circle (valaņa-), dāī generous (dāyin-), utrāņ northern path of sun (uttariyaṇa-), mōr (mayūra-).

For $aya > \bar{e}$ see above, § 30 (1).

- 69. Intervocalic -v- remained, except in the groups -ava-, vă, ăv, ōv.
- (1) $cakv\bar{a}$ ($cakrav\bar{a}ka$ -), $j\bar{v}vv\bar{u}$ ($j\bar{v}uti$), $th\bar{a}var$ ($sth\bar{a}vara$ -), $sev\bar{u}$ hatch ($s\bar{e}vat\bar{e}$), $k\bar{e}vat$ ($k\bar{e}vata$ -), $dubh\bar{a}vo$ ($durbh\bar{a}va$ -), $d\bar{e}v$ (deva-), $nav\bar{u}$ (nava-), $n\bar{a}v$ boat ($n\bar{a}v\bar{u}$), $nibh\bar{a}vv\bar{u}$ ($nirbh\bar{u}$ -), $rakh\bar{a}vat$ protection (v_rtti -), $av\bar{a}\bar{i}$ ($\bar{a}v\bar{u}da$ -), $av\bar{a}s$ ($\bar{a}v\bar{u}sa$ -), $c\bar{i}var$ (civara-).
- (2) After \bar{o} , \check{u} , -v- is lost: $jan\bar{o}\bar{\imath}$ ($yaj\tilde{n}\bar{o}pav\bar{\imath}ta$ -), $s\bar{o}n\bar{u}$ ($sauvar\mu a$ -), $\tilde{a}b\bar{o}\bar{\imath}$ umbilical cord ($amb\bar{a}$ - $upav\bar{\imath}ta$ -), $t\bar{u}r\bar{u}$ (tuvara-), $ukh\bar{a}\mu\bar{\imath}$ (* $upakhy\bar{a}na$ -).

-v- < -vv- < -vy- is lost before $\bar{u}: g\bar{a}\bar{u}$ ($gavy\bar{u}ti$ -).

For $-ava > \bar{o}$ see above, § 30 (1)

In $py\bar{a}s$ ($pip\bar{a}s\bar{a}$), $b\bar{\epsilon}sv\bar{u}$ ($upavi\acute{s}ati$), $p\bar{\epsilon}sv\bar{u}$ ($pravi\acute{s}ati$) the loss of -v- is due to dissimilation with the preceding labial. $j\bar{\imath}$ (? $j\bar{\imath}vatu$) is a word of address and therefore liable to further change.

- 70. -r- remains, -l- becomes -l-.
- -r-: pāthur(prastura-), mājur(mañjara-), rān(araṇya-), bār (dvāra-), sutār (sūlradhāra-), visarvū (viṣmarati), sasro (śvaśura-), bhamro (bhramara-), jājrū (jarjara-), gāgar (gargarī).
 - -l-: kāl death (kālu-), pīļū (pītala-), phaļ (phala-), vāl

hair (vāla-), mūļ (mūla-), āgļā (anguli-), kājaļ (kajjala-), mēļvā (mēlayati), āļsā lazy (ālasa-), jaļvā burn (jvalati).

- 71. -ś-, -ṣ-, -s- became MI -s-, which remained in Gujarātī except before and after $\check{\imath}$ $\check{\imath}$, where it became \acute{s} .
- -ś-: kaṇas (kaniśa-), lusaṇ (luśuna-), nās (nāśa-), kōs (krōśa-), pāsrū (prāniśu-), das (daśa), məsūļ (māt γ -śālā) kōs (kōśa-).
- . -ṣ-: māṇas (mānuṣa-), kāmas scum on sugarcane juice (kalmaṣa-), rusrā angry (ruṣati), cusvā (cūṣati), māso a weight (māṣa-), ūs salt ground (ūṣa-), bhasvā (bhaṣati), kasvā (kaṣati).
- -s-: bhāsvā (bhāsayati), sās breath (śvāsa-), hasvā (hasati), cəmās (caturmāsa-), kapās (karpāsa), khas (khasa-), musļā (musala-), ghās (ghāsa-), gōras gōrśī (gōrasa-).

-h-

- 72. Intervocalic -h- converges with MI -h- from aspirated stops. It is preserved in OWR, but in Mod. Gujarātī has undergone certain modifications.
- (1) It is attached to a preceding g, making gh; and the two vowels previously separated coalesce: $gh\bar{\epsilon}l\bar{u}$ (grathila-), $gh\bar{\epsilon}r\bar{u}$ (gabh $\bar{\epsilon}ra$ -), $gh\bar{\epsilon}r$ (gabvara-), $gh\bar{\epsilon}r$

Similarly in -rh--mh-h attaches itself to a preceding g: ghar house < *garham (grha-), gharan eclipse < *garhanaor as a tatsama from *garahana- (grahana-), ghīrvā
< *garhayati (grhṇāti); ghimel an insect < gimha(grīṣma-).

(2) Where the separated vowels are similar the -h- is attached to any preceding stop, and the vowels coalesce: $bh\bar{u}kh < buhukkh\bar{u}$ (bubhuksā).

 $dh\bar{\imath}$ daughter, Pā. $dh\bar{\imath}t\bar{a}$, is usually referred to Skt. $duhit_{T}$. Its early occurrence, however, makes this

doubtful, and it is to be connected rather with $\sqrt{dh\bar{e}}$ in the sense of "suckled"; cf. RV $dh\bar{\imath}t\acute{a}$ - sucked. The Pkt. form $dh\bar{u}d\check{a}$ (beside $d\check{n}\bar{\imath}d\bar{a}$) is due to the influence of $duhit\bar{a}$.

- (3) Where -h- separates two originally long vowels, it remains: $soh\bar{a}g$ ($saubh\bar{a}gya$ -), $ah\bar{\imath}r$ ($\bar{a}bh\bar{\imath}ra$ -).
- (4) In all other circumstances -h- becomes -h- (i.e. an h pronounced with the larynx in an intermediate closure between that for a vowel and that for an h). The separated vowels coalesce, the resultant sound following the h, which is preceded by a very short vowel, usually \mathfrak{d} , but doubtless varying according to surrounding sounds and the clearness of the speaker, and perhaps also spoken with the larynx opened as for h e.g. kahera is $[k^{\mathfrak{d}}hera$.

In rapid speech and in unstressed positions this h disappears, and in the speech of the uneducated h has disappeared altogether. In the written language the spelling of this sound varies considerably, e.g. $[k^{oh}\epsilon \cdot va]$ is spelt kaheva, k'heva, kehva, ke'va, keva. Where h normally is shown in the written language, I have transcribed it as h following the vowel.

mōvũ (möhayati), mōh (mukha-), pīyar father's house (*pitr-garha-), vāhṇ ship (vāhana-), dēhrũ (*dēva-garha-), pōhḷũ (pṛthula-), pēhlũ (pṛathama-), kēhvũ (kathayati), kāhṇũ (kathānaka-), mauḍo (madhu-), vāhlū (vallabha-), vāhnū (vibhāna-), lāhvũ (lābhayati).

Where the second vowel in Gujarātī is final and long, the two vowels do not coalesce: $vah\bar{u}$ ($vadh\bar{u}$ -), $s\bar{a}h\bar{u}$ ($s\bar{u}dhu$ -), $pah\bar{\iota}$ (pathika-), $ju\bar{\iota}$ ($y\bar{u}thik\bar{u}$), $duh\bar{\iota}$ (dadhi-), $mah\bar{\iota}$ (mathita-).

CONSONANTS IN CONTACT

73. Where two or more consonants come together, assimilation takes place. This assimilation was already completed by the time of the Asoka inscriptions, except in the case of certain groups containing a sibilant or r in

some dialects. In the consonant group the explosive consonant absorbed the implosive. Hence in a group like -tk- the resulting sound was -kk-, e.g. bhaktam > bhattam. Where both sounds were explosive, i.e. when both formed a syllable with the following vowel, that having the greater degree of closure was the dominant. Hence groups like stop+r or stop+nasal became double stop, e.g. takram > takkam, $agnih > agg\bar{\imath}$. A sibilant being absorbed imparted aspiration to the group.

In some cases the more open of two explosive consonants exercised a certain influence (owing to the position assumed by the tongue, etc., in the passage from one sound to another) on the more closed or dominant consonant, e.g. dental +y or dental +s > double palatal; k = in the eastern dialects > cch; dental +v or m > double labial (double dental in some dialects).

In the groups hy, ry the y became j and so the dominant consonant.

These double consonants remained unchanged until some time between Hemacandra and the OWR texts. In these double stops have all been simplified with compensatory lengthening of the preceding vowel, except in unaccented syllables, where the vowel remains (or has again become) short. In the group nasal+consonant the nasality has passed to the vowel, which has been lengthened in the same way as the vowel before a double consonant.

STOP + STOP

74. Homorganic.

kk: kukḍī (kukkuṭī), hīk hiccough (hikka-), cīk tree-gum (cikkana-).

cc: ũcũ (ucca-), khīcī (khiccā), ucarvũ (uccarati), ucaņvũ (uccinōti), ucāļo furniture (uccalati).

cch: puchvū (pṛcchati), ichvū (icchati), che (Pa. acchati), puchḍū (puccha-), pīchū (piccha-), aṇach (anicchā) kāch waist-band (kacchā: kakṣa-).

jj: lāj (lajjā), sāj (sajja-), bhujvā (bhṛjjati), kājaļ (kajjala-), ujāgro insomnia (HD ujjāgiro).

tt: āto (atta-), kutņī (kuttinī), kūt (kutta-), kōt (kotta-), hāt (hatta-), pāt strip of cloth (patta-).

tth: uthvā rise < *utthita- (utthita-), uthāv height (utthāpaka-).

dd: udvā (uddayati), hād bone (hadda-), ād obstruction (addati).

tt: chīt (chitti-), mātū (matta-), vīt money (vitta-), tītar partridge (tittira-), utarvū descend (uttarati), utlū shallow (ut-tala-).

dd: kudāļī (kuddāla-).

ddh: śīdhū honest (siddha-), sūdh (śuddhi-), jōdh (yōddhy-), būdh (buddha-).

 $pp: piplo (pippala-), pipar (*pippari <math>\pi \epsilon \pi \epsilon \rho \iota).$

75. In heterorganic groups the first stop is assimilated to the second.

tk: mākan (matkuna-), ukardo rubbish (utkara-), ukaļvā boil (utkalayati).

tkh: ukhuī pounding (utkhanati).

dg: pāg foot (padga-), ugāmvū (udgāmayati), ugmaņ (udgamana-), ugarvū escape (udgirati), ugār escape (udgāra-), mōgar mallet (mudgara-).

dgh: ughād fair weather (udghāṭa-).

kt: bhāt (bhakta-), rātū red (rakta-), sātū flour of parched corn (śaktu-), mōtī (mauktika-).

 $pt: s\bar{a}t$ 7 (sapta-), $t\bar{a}t\bar{u}$ (tapta-), suto (supta-).

bd: sad (sabda-).

gdh: dūdh (dugdha-), dādhel burnt (dagdha-).

bdh: lādhvā (labdha-).

tp: upajvā (utpadyatē), upaņvā (utpunāti), upāvvā produce (utpādayati), upādvā lift up (utpātayati).

 $dbh: ubhro ext{ effervescence } (udbharati), ubhā (udbhāta-).$

GROUPS WITH A NASAL

76. Stop + nasal.

(1) In the group guttural + n, the n is assimilated.

- kn: mukvā let go (Pkt. mukka- < *mukna-: mukta-).</p>
 Dr. Bloch denies this derivation.¹ But the similar evolution of gn > gg, and the frequency of -na- as a participial suffix, are in favour of Pischel when he postulates a *mukna-.²
- $gn: n\bar{a}g\bar{u}$ naked (nagna-), $\bar{a}g$ (agni-), $bh\bar{a}g\bar{u}$ fled (bhagna-).
- (2) In the group $j\hat{n}$ the j was assimilated: the resultant $\hat{n}\hat{n} > nn > n$.
 - $j\hat{n}: r\bar{a}n\bar{\imath}$ ($r\bar{a}j\hat{n}\bar{\imath}$) beside $r\bar{a}n\bar{\imath}$, $\bar{a}n$ command ($\bar{a}j\hat{n}\bar{a}$), $jan\bar{o}\bar{\imath}$ ($yaj\hat{n}\bar{o}pav\bar{\imath}ta$ -), $vinavv\bar{u}$ solicit ($vij\hat{n}apayati$), $n\bar{a}nv\bar{u}$ test ($j\hat{n}\bar{a}na$ -).
 - (3) tm > pp, pn > mm.
 - tm: āpaņ own (ātman-).
 - pn: pāmvā obtain (prāpnōti); sāmņā dream is a doublet-form from *sāmā (svapna-) and *sivņā < Pkt. siviņa-, IE *supəno-.
- 77. Double nasals are simplified with compensatory lengthening of the preceding vowel: MI nn > n. This latter change has occurred in OWR.
 - nn : kān < kuṇṇa- (karṇa-), pān betel-leaf < puṇṇa- (parṇa-).
 - nn: chānā covered (channa-), ān corn (anna-), bhīnā wet (bhinna-), kinrī (kinnara-), anāj (annādya-).
 - mm: dām (dramma-), samārvā kill (*sammārayati).
- 78. In the group nasal + stop or sibilant, the nasal is lost and the preceding vowel nasalized and, if it is in the accented syllable, lengthened.

When, however, a voiced stop in modern Gujarātī has become final, this group of vowel + nasal + stop results in two forms, due to difference of sandhi according as it came before another consonant or a vowel. This is most common with -mb; but, though not written, is often heard with -ng and -nd, e.g. $\tilde{a}g$ or $\tilde{a}n$, $c\tilde{a}d$ or $c\tilde{a}n$, $s\tilde{a}b$ or $s\bar{a}m$, $s\tilde{a}m$ beside sandable bar down above the sum of the sandable bar distribution of the sandab

¹ Bloch, § 94.

² Pischel, § 566.

- $\dot{n}k$: $\tilde{a}kd\bar{\imath}$ hook ($a\dot{n}ka$ -), $k\tilde{a}kan$ bracelet ($ka\dot{n}kana$ -), $r\tilde{a}k$ humble ($ra\dot{n}ka$ -).
- $\dot{n}kh$: $s\tilde{a}k(h)al$ chain ($\dot{s}r\dot{n}khala$ -).
- ng: ãg body (unga-), ãgaļ (anguli-), bhāgvā be broken (*bhangyutē), šīg (śrnga-), ãgṇā (angana-), kãg a corn (kangu-), pãgļā (pangula-), rãyḍā walking slowly (rungati), āyūṭho (anguṣṭha-), bhīgāro (bhriga-), āgāro ember (angāra-).
- $\dot{n}gh: j\tilde{a}g(h) (ja\dot{n}gh\bar{a}), l\tilde{a}ghv\bar{a} \text{ fast } (la\dot{n}ghati).$
- ne: pāc (panca), cāc beak (cancu-), ācaļ hem (ancala-), lāc (lancā), kācļī sleeved coat (kancukī), kācī (kuncikā), sācarvā pass (sancarati), sācvā collect (sancaya-).
- nj: ajņī (unjana-), bhājvu break (*bhanjati), pājru prisoner's bar (panjana-), lājo dispute (lanjati), pijvu (pinjā), majīth madder (manjiṣṭhā).
- $\hat{n}jh$: cf. $s\hat{a}jh$ (sandhyā), $v\tilde{a}jh$ (vandhyā).
- nt: kāto thorn (kanta-), vāto share (vanta-), ghātī ankle (ghuntaka-), cūtvũ pluck (cuntati), lūtvũ plunder (luntati).
- nth: sāth ginger (śunthi-), cūthvū turn over (cunthayati), lāthū violent (lunthati).
- nd: dådā clothes-stick (danda-), khādvā (khandatē), åd (anda-), mådvā (mandatē), tādļā (tāndula-), bhåd obscene (bhanda-), mådan tonsure (mundana-), råd (randā), mådvo booth (mandapa-).
- nt: dāt (danta-), kāt beloved (kānta-), sāt (śrānta-), āturḍī entrails (antara-), tāt thread (tantu-), sātvā be finished (śānta-), vātarvā cut through (vyantara-).
- nd: phādo deceit (spanda-), cād (candra-), khūdvū crush (*kṣundati), nādiyo Śiva's bull (nanda-), kādo onion (kanda-), šīdūr vermilion (sindūra-).
- ndh: $\tilde{a}dh\tilde{a}$ storm $(andhik\tilde{a})$, $kh\tilde{a}d(h)$ shoulder (skandha-), $g\tilde{a}dh\tilde{a}$ perfumer (gandhika-), $b\tilde{a}dh$ (bandha-), $s\tilde{a}dh$ joint (sandhi-), $\tilde{a}dhl\tilde{a}$ blind (andha-), $r\tilde{a}dhv\tilde{a}$ (rundhati).

mp : kãp shivering (kampa-), cãp à (campaka-), lĩpv à (limpati), sãpad v à find (sampatati).

mb: laba (lamba-), kabļo blanket (kambala-), abī (umbika), jabū (jambū-), abar (udumbara-), sām (śamba-), lūm (HD lumbī), am (Pkt. amba- < āmra-).

mbh: lãbhā lottery (lambha-), kãbh pot (kumbha-), khābhār (kumbhakāra-), khām pillar (skambha-).

hm > mh > mbh, cf. $s\tilde{a}bharv\tilde{u}$ (samsmarati).

iiiś : vās bamboo (vainśa-), sāso (sainśaya-), pāsrū (prāinśu-).

ins: kāsā cymbals (kāmsya-), kās drinking cup (kamsa-), hās goose (hamsa-).

79. In postaccentual syllables the nasalization is lost. This development was in process in the OW-R of the texts, where present participles end in -antaü, -antaü, -ataü (G. -to), e.g. puchto, OWR puchataü, puchantaü < Pkt. puchantaö. Similarly, pacās (pancāśat) after ék pacās, etc.; cf. kādav < *kádāv (kardama-).

GROUPS WITH y

80. In the groups guttural, palatal, corebral, or labial +y, the y is assimilated.

 $ky: v\bar{a}k$ speech $(v\bar{a}kya-), \dot{s}\bar{\imath}k\hat{\imath}a$ sling $(\dot{s}ikya-).$

khy: vakhāṇ (vyākhyāna-), ukhāṇ (*upakhyāna-).

 $gy: l\bar{a}gv\bar{u} \ (lagyati), bh\bar{a}gv\bar{u} \ run \ away \ (bhagyat\bar{e}), soh\bar{a}g \ (saubh\bar{a}gya-), bh\bar{a}g \ fortune \ (bh\bar{u}gya-), j\bar{o}g \ (y\bar{o}gya-).$

 $v\epsilon r\bar{a}g$, as shown by its ϵ , is a tatsama ($vair\bar{a}gya$ -).

cy : rācvā look well (racyatē), rucvā suit (*rucyati : rōcatē), cuvā leak (cyuta-).

 $n\bar{\imath}c\bar{\imath}$ low is not from $n\bar{\imath}cya$, but Pkt. nicca- with -cc- after ucca-. $k\bar{\imath}c$ glass is an old tatsama, Pkt. ucca- from Skt. $k\bar{\imath}ca$ - (see § 8).

jy: rāj (rājya-), vaṇaj (vāṇijya-), jēṭh (jyēṣṭha-).

ty: tuṭvũ (truṭyati), phuṭvũ (sphuṭyate), phūṭvũ (*sphaṭyati: sphaṭatē), ghāṭ (*ghaṭya-: ghaṭatē).

 $dy : j\bar{a}d\bar{u}$ thick $(j\bar{a}dya)$.

- py: dipvā (dīpyatē), rōpvā (rōpyatē), lōpvā hide (lōpya-:lōpayati), māp measure (māpya-).
- bhy: $l\bar{a}bhv\bar{a}$ find $(labhyat\bar{e})$.
- 81. The group dental + y becomes a double palatal.
- ty: $s\bar{a}c\bar{u}$ true (satya-), $n\bar{a}c$ dance (*nartya- or $n_{\bar{i}}tya$ -). $b\bar{i}j\bar{u}$ 2nd < *dvidya- by assimilation from *dvitya-.
- dy: khīj (khidņatē), khāj food (khādya-), sijvā sweat (svidyati), āj (adya), vājā (vādya-), vīj (vidyut). anāj (annādya-), nijvā sleep < *nidyati (nidrā), mōjī gay (mōdyatē), chājvā < *chadyati (chadayati), ājam (udyama-).
- dhy: śijhvā be finished (sidhyati), rijhvā (rdhyati), jujhvā (yudhyatē), sujhvā appear (śudhyati), jhājhā < *udhyadhyaka- (udhyadhi), sājh (sandhyā), vājh (vandhyā), jhākh (udhyakṣa-).
- 82. In the groups nasal, l, v or sibilant +y, the y is assimilated.
 - ny: pān (puņya-), rān (araņya-).
 - ny: sūnā (śūnya-), dhān (dhānya-), mānvā obey (manyatē), ān another (anya-), nākhvā throw down (nyakṣa-), nagōḍ (nyagrōḍha-).
 - my: samāvā be mitigated (śāmyati), ghumvā (HD ghummaï < *ghumya-).
 - ly: kāl (kalyam), mūl price (mūlya-), śēl (śailya-), tēl <*tailya- (taila-), palan (palyāṇa-).
 - vy: \dot{sivv} (\dot{sivv} (\dot{sivv} atē), \dot{ava} vr \dot{a} unused ($a + vy\bar{a}p\bar{a}ra$ -), \dot{bha} vv \dot{a} (\dot{bha} vy \dot{ate}), \dot{vagh} tiger (\dot{vyagh} ra-), \dot{verv} (\dot{vyah} irati), \dot{vam} (\dot{vyama} -).
 - For $g\bar{a}\bar{u}$ (gavy $\bar{u}ti$ -) see § 69 (2).
 - $\dot{s}y: n\bar{a}sv\bar{u} (na\dot{s}yati), di\dot{s}v\bar{u} (dr\dot{s}yat\bar{e}).\dot{s}\bar{a}ml\bar{u} (\dot{s}y\bar{a}mala-).$
 - $sy: \text{fut. } -isy\bar{a}mi > \text{Pkt. } -issain, G. -\bar{\imath}s.$
 - sy: salo wife's brother (syala-).
- 83. In the groups ry hy, r and h are assimilated, and the resultant yy yyh become jj jjh.
 - ry: kāj (kārya-), ājo grandfather (ārya-), thijvā congeal < *sthiryati (sthira-), dhīj ordeal (dhīrya-).

hy : dājhvā be burnt (dahyatē), dujhvā be milked (duhyatē), mujhāvā be uneasy (muhyati).

 $yy: s\bar{e}j$ bed, Pkt. $sejj\bar{a}$ (ś $ayy\bar{a}$), with e after ś $\bar{e}t\bar{e}$.

GROUPS WITH r

84. In all groups containing r the r is assimilated. In the groups mr and perhaps nr the corresponding voiced stop developed between the nasal and r, so that these groups became mb? nd, which converged with PI mb nd.

kr: tāk (takra-), cakvā (cakravāka-), vāk (vakra-), kōs (krōśa-), cāk (cakra-).

rk: tākvā (tarkayati), mākḍā spider (markaṭa-), ākḍo (arka-), kākḍā (karkaṭa-), sākar sugar (śarkarā), kākar teeth of a saw (karkara-).

 $gr: \bar{a}g\tilde{u}$ in front (agra-), $v\bar{\imath}gh\tilde{u}$ (vigraha-), $j\bar{a}gv\tilde{u}$ wake ($j\bar{a}gra$ -), $g\bar{u}m$ ($gr\bar{u}ma$ -), $g\tilde{a}th$ (grantha-).

ry: māgvā (mārgati), māy (mārga-), āyļī bolt (argalī), cōgṇā (caturguṇa-), māgsar a month (mārgasira-), gāgar (gargarī).

 $ghr: v\bar{a}gh \ (vy\bar{a}ghra-), gh\bar{a}n \ (ghr\bar{a}na-).$

rgh : sɔ̄ghū (samargha-), mɔ̄ghū (mahārgha-), ghāghrī (ghargharī).

rc: $\tilde{a}c$ (arcis-), $j\tilde{a}cv\tilde{u}$ (jarcati), $k\bar{u}co$ ($k\bar{u}rca$ -).

rj: mājvā (mārjati), gājvā (garjati), gājar (garjara-), jājro (jarjara-), gujrī (gurjara-), bhɔjāī (bhrāturjāyā), mājār (mārjāra-).

rjh: jhājhar cymbal (jharjhara-).

pr: pyārlove(priyakāra-), pathāro expanse(prastāra-), pākhar (prakṣara-), pātharvā spread (prastarati), pāmvā (prāpnōti), pōkhvā (prōkṣatē), pōṇ (pravacana-), pēkhvā (prēkṣatē), pakhāļvā (prakṣālayati), pāsrā (prāmśu-).

rp: •sāp (sarpa-), āpvā give (arpayati), sɔ̄pvā (samar-payati), pāpaḍ (parpaṭa-), kāpaḍ (karpaṭa-), kōpriyā elbow (kaurpara-).

- rb: dubl! \bar{u} (durbala-), $s\bar{a}bar$ stag ($\acute{s}arbara$ -), $k\bar{a}br\bar{u}$ (karbara-), $\bar{A}b\bar{u}$ (arbuda-).
- bhr: ābh cloud (abhra-), bhamvū (bhramati), bhāī (bhrātīg-), bhājiyū fried grain (*bhrajjita-).
- rbh: gābh (garbha-), gābhnī (garbhinī). cibhdī (cirbha-tikā), dubhāvo (durbhāva-), dābh (darbha-), nibhāvvū (nirbhū-), bhābho fool (cf. bharbharā).
- tr rt, rth, dr rd, dhr rdh; see § 43.
- rņ: kān (karṇa-), pān (parṇa-), sōnā (sauvarṇa-), vān (varṇa-), ūn (ūrṇa-), jūnā (jūrṇa-), cūn (cūrṇa-), jīnā (jīrṇa-).
- rm: cām (carmun-), kām (karman-), kāmaṇ witcheraft (kārmaṇa·), ghām (gharma-), comās (caturmāsa-), bhām tax on leather (bharma-), dhām holy place (dharma-), dhāmaṇ (dharmaṇa-).
- mr: (a) initially > $m-: m\bar{a}khan$ (mrakṣaṇa-); (b) medially > $-mh--m: \hat{a}bo$ ($\bar{a}mraka-$), $t\tilde{a}b\tilde{n}$ ($t\bar{a}mra-$), $\bar{a}m$ ($\bar{a}mra-$). ry: see § 83.
- rl: nilajra shameless (nirlajja-), dala (durlabha-).
- rv: cāvvā chew (carvati), sāv (sarva-), kāvrā excited (karvara-), covāţe (catur + vṛṭṭa-).
- śr: sāsū mother-in-law (śvaśrū-), visāmo rest (viśrāma-), sāt (śrānta-), cōras (caturaśra-).
- rś: pāsc aside (pārśva-).
- rs: śīś (śīrsa-), ghasaro scratch (gharsa-).
 - phars \tilde{a} (sparsa-), \tilde{a} rs \tilde{a} (\tilde{a} darsa-), sarsav (sarsapa-); see § 32.
- $sr: m\bar{a} \dot{s}\bar{i} \text{ mother's sister} < *m\bar{a} is\bar{a} s\bar{i} < m\bar{a} trsvasrik\bar{a}.$

GROUPS WITH L

- 85. l + stop or m : l is assimilated.
- lg: phāgaṇ (phālguna-), phāg (phalgu-), gūgaļ (gulgulu-).
- lp: kāp (kalpa-), kāpvā (kalpati).
- lm: kāmas (kalmaṣa-), gumḍū boil (gulma-).
- 86. (1) l + y, v or h, and r + l : y, v, h, r are assimilated.

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ly: see § 82.

 $lv : b\bar{\imath}l$ bilva-leaf (bilva-).

lh: kōlā fox (HD kolhuo).

rl: see § 84.

- ll: phūl (phulla-), ulāļ vomit (ullalati), cīl (cilla-), gāl (galla-), khāl skin (khalla-), chāl bark (challi-), Bhīl (bhilla-), jhālar (jhallarī).
- (2) In the group $\dot{m}l$ \dot{m} is lost if $salagv\tilde{u}$ catch fire corresponds to $sa\dot{m}lag$.

GROUPS WITH V

87. (1) Guttural, palatal, or cerebral stops +v:v is assimilated.

kv: pākū ripe (pakva-).

 $jv: ujl\bar{u}$ (ujjvala-), $jalv\bar{u}$ (jvalati), jar fever (jvara-).

 $tv: kh\bar{a}t (khatv\bar{a}).$

(2) Dental + v becomes double labial; see § 51.

tv : -pan < -tvana-, rãḍāpo < *raṇḍatva-, kāḷap bāḷap < -tva-.

 $dv: b\bar{a}r (dv\bar{a}ra-), b\bar{e} (dv\bar{e}), bat\bar{\imath}s (dv\bar{a}-), b\bar{\imath}j\bar{\imath}i (dvit\bar{\imath}ya-).$ $dhv: \bar{u}bh\bar{u} (\bar{u}rdhva-).$

- (3) l + v: v is assimilated, see § 86.
- (4) Sibilant $+ v \cdot v$ is assimilated.

śv: pāse (pārśva-), nisāso (niḥśvāsa-), sās (śvāsa-), sasro (śvaśura-).

 $sv: m\bar{a} \dot{s}\bar{\imath} \ (m\bar{a} trsvasrik\bar{a}).$

sv: sāthiyo (svastika-).

(5) vy, rv: y and r are assimilated, see §§ 82, 84.

(6) $hv > bbh : j\bar{\imath}bh \ (jihv\bar{a}).$

GROUPS WITH A SIBILANT

88. Sibilant + stop becomes double aspirated stop.

śc : pāchī after (paścāt), vīchī (vṛścika-), tirchū slanting (tiraśc-).

sk: sūkhū (śuska-), vikharvū be scattered, vakhērvū scatter (viskirati).

st: dīthā (dṛṣṭa-), vuṭhvā (vṛṣṭa-), āṭh 8 (aṣṭau), pīṭh

- (piṣṭa-), ruṭhvā (ruṣṭa-), nāṭhā (naṣṭa-), mīṭhā (mṛṣṭa-), mūṭhā (mṛṣṭa-), kāṭha wretched (kaṣṭa-).
- ṣṭh: aguṭho (anguṣṭha-), kāṭh (kūṣṭha-), pūṭh (pṛṣṭha-), kāṭh (kōṣṭha-), gōṭh (gōṣṭha-), jēṭh (jyēṣṭha-), śēṭh (śrēṣṭhin-), ṭhūm < *ṣṭhāma- (sthāman-).
- sk: vakhār warehouse (vakṣaskāra-), khām (skambha-), khād(h) (skandha-).
- skh: khāļvā hinder (skhālayati).
- st: hāth (hasta-), māthā (mastaku-), pāthar (prastara-), sāthiyo (svastika-), bhāt(h)o quiver (bhastra-), sāthro grass bed (sastara-), nāth nose ring (nastā), āth store of money (asta-), āthamṇā western (astamana-), thar layer (stara-).
- sth: thāṇũ station (sthāna-), thāvar (sthāvara-), thāļ shallow copper vessel (sthālī), thōr old < *thavara-(sthavira-), sāth lease (samsthi-).
- sp: phādo (spanda-).
- sph: phāṭvā (sphaṭatē), phār too much (sphāra-), pharvā wheel (spharati), phuṭvā (sphuṭyatē), aphāḍvā (āsphāḍayati).
- 89. Stop + sibilant.
- (1) kṣ became kkh: līkh louse-nit (likṣā), lākh wax (lākṣā), śīkh (śikṣā), ākhā (akṣata-), īkhaṇvā (avakṣanōti), oļakhvā (upalakṣatē), khār (kṣīra-), khōvā lose (kṣapana-), khamvā (kṣamatē), khan (kṣaṇa-), sākh (sākṣya-), tīkhā (tīkṣṇa-).

Beside $t\bar{\imath}kh\bar{\imath}a$ also $t\bar{\imath}n\bar{\imath}a$. Marāṭhī and Nepālī both show the double treatment of $k\bar{\imath}a$, e.g. M. $t\bar{\imath}kh\bar{a}$ ($tik\bar{\imath}aa$ -) beside M. $s\bar{a}n$ ($slak\bar{\imath}aa$ -), N. $t\bar{\imath}kho$ beside $s\bar{a}no$ small ($slak\bar{\imath}aa$ -). The difference is found in Prakrit, where tikkha-, $ti\bar{\imath}aa$ -, sanha- appear, as well as pamha- ($pak\bar{\imath}aa$ -). The remark of Mārkandeya, quoted by Pischel, that tikkha- has the literal meaning and $ti\bar{\imath}aa$ - the derived, points to the second form, in this particular case, being a loanword from another dialect.

The following are loanwords from a ch-dialect: $k\bar{a}ch$ (kacchā: kakṣa-), $r\bar{v}ch$ (rkṣa-), churo (chura-: kṣura-), tāch (takṣa-), cha 6, (*kṣvakṣ), chār beside $kh\bar{u}r$ (kṣāra-), $\bar{u}s$ < * $\bar{u}ch$ (Northern Gujarātī or Marāṭhī < ikṣu-), $vichaļv\bar{u}$ (vikṣal-), $ch\bar{u}dv\bar{u}$ beside $kh\bar{u}dv\bar{u}$ (kṣud-).

- (2) t or p + s become cch.
- ts: vāch (vatsa-), mācho fish (matsya-), char knife (tsaru-), ucharvū be brought up (utsarati).

ps: gūcho bunch (guccha-: grpsa-).

- 90. Sibilant + nasal.
- (1) sn, sn become nh.
- $sn: \bar{u}n(h)\bar{u} \ (usna-), \ un(h)\bar{a}lo \ (usnak\bar{a}la-).$
- sn: pānav flow of milk into udder (prasnava-), nhāvā (snāti), nhānā (snāna-), nēh (snēha-).
- (2) $\pm m$, $\pm m$, $\pm m$; see § 534
- 91. Sibilant +y, r or v; and r + sibilant: y, r, v are assimilated. $\pm sy$, $\pm sy$,
- 92. hk, hkh, hp become kk, kkh, pp: cōk Pkt. caukka-

 <*catuhka- (catuṣka-), dukhvā (Pkt. dukkha-, Skt.

 duhkha-), cɔpāī <*catuhpāda- (catuṣpāda-).

SUMMARY OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE GUJARĀTĪ AND PRIMITIVE INDIAN SOUNDS

93. The sounds on the left of each column are Gujarātī, those on the right PI, unless otherwise stated. The numbers refer to preceding paragraphs.

MI $i\bar{a}$ 27 (3).	$\tilde{\epsilon} = \text{MJ } a \ddot{\imath} \text{ 28 (2) } (a).$
MI iu 27 (3).	MI $a\bar{\imath}$ 28 (2) (a).
MI iani 27 (4).	MI $aya \ 30 \ (3) \ (a)$.
MI ium 27 (4).	a 33.
u = u 17, 21, 23 (2).	$o = MI \ a\ddot{u} \ 28 \ (2) \ (b).$
\bar{u} 20, 21, 23 (3)	$J = MI \ \alpha \ddot{u} \ 28 \ (2) \ (b).$
g 18.	MI $a\bar{u}$ 28 (2) (b).
$\bar{a}mi \ 67 \ (2) \ (b).$	MI ava 30 (2), (3).
$\bar{u} = \bar{u} 17.$	MI ōā 27 (2).
и 19.	$MI \ \bar{oi} \ 27 \ (2) \ (b)$
r 18.	k = k 57.
$MI \ \tilde{u} + \tilde{u} \ 27 \ (1).$	kk 74.
MI uā 27 (5).	tk 75.
MI ua 27 (5).	kn 76 (1).
$e = e \ 23 \ (3).$	nk 78.
$ai\ 23\ (3).$	kr 84.
MI aï 28 (3) (a), (b).	rk 84.
$\bar{e} = \bar{e} 17.$	ky 80.
ai 17.	kv 87 (1).
aya 30 (1).	hk 88.
\bar{a} 31.	kh 40.
MI e 19.	kh = kh 57.
MI $\bar{e}a$ 27 (2) (a).	tkh 75.
MI $\bar{e}u$ 27 (2) (a).	ńkh 78.
MI $a\bar{e} \ 27 \ (2) \ (c)$.	khy 80.
$o = \bar{o} \ 21, \ 23 \ (3).$	şk 88.
au 23 (3).	sk 88.
MI $a\ddot{u}$ 28 (3) (a), (b).	skh 88.
$\bar{o} = \bar{o} 17.$	kṣ 89 (1).
au 17.	ksn 89 (1).
ava 30 (1), (2).	hkh 88.
MI o 19.	g = g 57.
MI $\bar{o}a$ 27 (2) (a).	dg 75.
MI $a\bar{o}$ 27 (2) (c).	gn 76.
MI aü 28 (1).	йд 78.
$\epsilon = MI \ a\ddot{\imath} \ 28 \ (2) \ (a).$	$\dot{g}y$ 80.
` , ` ,	

gr 84.	g 41.
rg 84.	jh = jh 57.
lg 85.	IE gāh, Skt. kṣ 42.
gh 40.	rjh 84.
gh = gh 57.	dhy 81.
dgh 75.	hy 83.
iigh 78.	$t = rt \ 43 \text{ B}.$
ghr 84.	rtt 43 B.
rgh 84.	t 44.
MI g - h 72 (1).	<i>tt</i> 74.
c = c 57.	<i>ty</i> 80.
cc 74.	tv 87 (1).
$\hat{n}c$ 78, 79.	ņţ 78.
cy 80.	țh 40.
rc 84.	th = tth 74.
ty 81.	nth 78.
$k \ 41.$	st 88.
ch = ch 57.	s!h 88.
cch 74.	d = dr 43 B.
cchr 84.	rd 43 B.
kş 89 (1).	rdh 43 $_{ m B}.$
ts 89 (2).	ұd 43 в.
ps 89 (2).	ho dh 43 в.
śc 88.	<i>r-t</i> 43 B.
kh 41.	d 44.
$j=j\ 57.$	t 44.
<i>jj</i> 74.	d 65.
$\hat{n}j$ 78.	dd 74.
jy 80.	dy 80.
rj 84.	nd 78.
jv 87.	<i>t</i> 65.
y 59.	MI dh 40.
dy 81.	dh = th 65.
ry 83.	<i>șțh</i> 56 .
yy 83.	γth 43 B.
jh 40.	$t=t\ 57.$

tt 74.	tv 87 (2).
kt 75.	ph = ph 57.
pt 75.	sp 88.
nt 78, 79.	sph 88.
tr 43 A.	sm 55 (3).
rt 43 a.	$b = b \ 57.$
MI th 40.	mb 78.
th = nth 78.	$m{r}b$ 84.
rth 43 A.	mr 84.
st 88.	$dv \ 87 \ (2).$
sth 88.	bh = bh 57.
d = d 57.	dbh 75.
dd 74.	mbh 78.
bd 75.	bhy 80.
nd 78.	bhr 84.
dr 43 A.	rbh 84.
rd 43 A.	$dhv \ 87 \ (2).$
MI dh 40.	hv 87 (6).
dh = dh 57.	MI b-h 72 (2)
gdh 75.	$\dot{n} = \dot{n}g \ 78.$
ddh 74.	$\dot{n}gh$ 78.
bdh 75.	n = n 66 (1).
nelh 78.	$n\ 66\ (1).$
dhr 43 A.	n = n 57.
rdh 43 A.	nn 77.
d- h 72 (2).	nn 77.
p = p 57.	ny~82.
pp 74.	ny 82.
t_{P} 75.	$j\hat{n}$ 76 (2).
mp 78.	rņ 84.
py 80.	sn 90 (1).
pr 84.	șņ 90 (1).
rp 84.	kṣṇ 89 (1).
lp 85.	m = m 57, 67 (1).
hp 88.	mm 77.
tm 76 (3).	mb 78.

my 82.	ś 60, 71.
rm 84.	ş 60, 71.
mr 78, 84.	śy 82.
lm 85.	sy 82.
sm 55 (2).	śr 84.
sin 55 (2).	sr 84.
$pn \ 76 \ (3).$	rś 84.
$y = MI \ \tilde{i} \ 27 \ (4), \ 29, \ 49.$	r $ 84.$
v = v 59, 69.	śv 87 (4).
vy 82.	sv 87 (4).
rv 84.	sv 87 (4).
b 63.	± 55 (1).
p 63.	sm 55 (1).
m 67 (2).	vii \$78.
MI ŭ 29.	iis 78.
r = r 59, 70.	c 42.
l 52 (2).	ch 42.
d 45.	$\dot{s} = MI \ s \ 60, 63.$
l = l 70.	h = h 60, 72.
d 45.	kh 64, 72.
r 52 (1).	gh 64, 72.
$\dot{m}l$ 86 (2).	th 64, 72.
l = l 59.	dh 64, 72.
ll 86.	bh 64, 72.
ly 82.	$\sim = m \ 30 \ (3) \ (a), \ 67 \ (2).$
rl 84.	$n \ 66 \ (2).$
lv 86.	smin 55 (2).
lh 86.	nasal + consonant 78.
$r\ 52\ (1).$	${\bf spontaneous}\ {\bf 16}.$
s = s 60, 71.	

The Portuguese in India and Arabia between 1507 and 1517

By E. DENISON ROSS

N the January number of this Journal there appeared a most interesting article by Mr. M. Longworth Dames on "The Portuguese and Turks in the Indian Ocean in the Sixteenth Century". The article furnishes an admirable introduction to this engrossing, if little known, subject; and it is only by way of supplement that I am writing the following notes.

The main sources of information on which we can draw are: Portuguese, Persian (Indian), Arabic, and Turkish. the most important are, of course, the Portuguese, and these have been fully utilized by Mr. Longworth Dames. He has also made use of such Persian histories as Ferishta and the Mir'át-i-Sikandari, but the Arabic and Turkish histories have remained for the most part unexplored. Certain of these last throw much light on the history of the Red Sea and the Indian Ocean in the sixteenth century, and I propose in this place to illustrate this claim. I wish, however, to state at the outset that the intimacy with which the early Portuguese writers disclose with the public affairs and private intrigues of the Moslems in Arabia and India is quite astonishing, and that the accounts that they give of the relations of the various Muhammedan states with one another is usually in striking accord with the narratives of Moslem historians.

In the present article it is my intention to deal only with the period of history covered by the years A.D. 1507-17, reserving for a future occasion the period of Indo-Portuguese History which terminated in the unsuccessful expedition of Sulayman Pasha against the Portuguese in Gujarat in 1538.

The ten years 1507-17 saw many happenings of historical importance in the Indian Ocean and the Red Sea, including

the partial conquest of the Yaman by the Circassian Mamluks, and the conquest of Egypt by the Ottoman Turks.

In the course of my researches on this period I have consulted upwards of twenty Arabic and Turkish works, chiefly in manuscript. I do not propose in this place to enumerate all these authorities, but will confine myself to the mention of those which appear to me the most important. I may mention that the two best Turkish Histories, namely, those of Munajjim Báshi and Colonel Ahmad Ráshid, both of which have been printed, contain nothing that is not to be found in the local Arabic Histories of the period.

The most important writer on the History of the Yaman down to A.D. 1517 is undoubtedly Wajíh ad-Dayba', who as an inhabitant of Zabíd had ample opportunity of obtaining first-hand information. He is the author of no less than five works dealing with the history of the Yaman, one of which is in verse. The best known of these is the Bughyat ul-Mustafid fi Akhbár Zabíd, of which an incomplete Latin translation was published by Johannsen in 1828.

Ad-Dayba' was born in A.H. 866 (A.D. 1461), and died in A.H. 944 (A.D. 1537), but none of his histories bring the narrative beyond A.H. 923 (A.D. 1517).

The next Arabic writer of importance is Qutb ud-Dín al-Makki an-Nahrawáli, who wrote two important works.

1. A history of the Yaman called al-Barq al-Yamáni fi 'l-fath al-'Othmáni, of which a somewhat abridged translation was published by De Sacy in tome iv of Notices et Extraits.

2. A History of Mekka called Kitáb ul-A'lam fi i'lam baytullah il-hiram, which was edited and epitomized by Wüstenfeld in his Chroniken der Stadt Mekka (Leipzig, 1858).

Qutb ud-Dín was born in Mekka in A.H. 920 (A.D. 1514), and died in A.H. 990 (A.D. 1582). For the first two decades of the Tenth Century he is not always reliable, and by an unfortunate chance certain statements of his which are misleading have been slavishly copied by later writers, as will. be seen below.

The third writer I have to mentior is 'Abdullah Muḥammed ibn 'Omar commonly known as Ḥájji ad-Dabír, who wrote an Arabic History of Gujarat called az-Zafar al Wólih bi Muzaffar wa álih, of which the text is now being published in the Indian Text Series.

Hájji ad-Dabír was born in Mekka about A.D. 1540, came to India as a young man, and remained there most of his life, employed in secretarial duties by various leading notables of Gujarat and the Deccan. His History of Gujarat, which is brought down as far as A.H. 1014 (A.D. 1605), contains a vast amount of interesting historical matter outside his immediate subject, and incidentally he devotes a good deal of space to the affairs in the Yaman and the Red Sea during the first half of the Sixteenth Century. To his quotations from ad-Dayba' he adds not merely his own intelligent commentaries, but also the personal narratives of eye-witnesses. It is noteworthy that he makes no allusion to Qutb ud-Dín's Histories, though it is hard to believe that they were unknown to him.

With so much by way of introduction I will proceed with my notes on Mr. Longworth Dames' paper.

- p. 8. The battle of Chaul.—I think this battle undoubtedly took place in January, 1508, ad-Dayba' tells us that Amir Husayn only reached Aden on his way to India in Rab'i ii, 913 (i.e. August, 1507). Castanheda, alluded to in the foot-note, is therefore correct.
- p. 9. Silence of the Gujarat Historians regarding the Victory of the Portuguese off Diu in 1509.—There is only one Moslem historian who alludes to this victory, namely, Zayn ud-Dín, the author of the well-known Tuhfat ul Mujáhidín.

The silence of the Mir'at-i-Sikandari is very remarkable, and a passage in the Arabic History of Gujarat led me for a time to conclude that at any rate the Egyptian fleet under Amír Husayn did not take part in the battle: for Hájji ad-Dabír implies that after the combined victory of the Gujarati and Egyptian fleets off Chaul, Mahmúd, king of Gujarat, invited Amír Husayn to remain in his service, but

that Amír Ḥusayn excused himself and withdrew with his fleet to Hormuz. In view, however, of the very circumstantial and detailed account given by Goes ¹ and others of Amír Ḥusayn's escape from the battle off Diu in 1509, I am inclined to think that Ḥájji ad-Dabír is guilty of suppressio veri.

As further evidence of the presence of Amír Husayn and the Egyptian fleet at the battle, we are told that the banners of the Soldan (i.e. Qánsawh al-Ghawri) and of Amír Ḥusayna were taken to Portugal and hung up in the Temple of Tomar, head of the illustrious military order of Christ. We are further told that among the spoils of victory were books in a great variety of languages showing the motley crowd of nationalities of which the Sultan's army was composed. It is, of course, quite probable that the ruler of Hormuz, like many other Moslem rulers, appealed to the Mamluk Sovereign for help in 1507, and Hájji ad-Dabír tells us that the king of the Yaman set out from Aden to attack the Portuguese near Hormuz in March, 1507. The Portuguese actually captured Hormuz in the following year. It is possible that after the Moslem victory off Chaul in January, 1508, Amír Husayn, under orders from the Sultan, Qansawh al-Ghawri, took his fleet to Hormuz, and thence returned to India to take an ignominous part in the battle off Diu.

Goes (part ii, ch. 39) gives full details of the Moslem fleets present at the battle of Diu, and says that Amír Ḥusayn's fleet comprised more than 100 ships. This would imply that he had a far larger fleet than at the battle of Chaul,

1 "Amir Husayn finding himself surrounded on all sides and finding that Malik Ayaz was holding aloof, watching the battle without entering it himself, and seeing that he had put his reliance on the Fustas, which now seemed to have abandoned him, and being himself wounded and many of his men being wounded or dead, he secretly slipped away through the rudder-hole of his ship and let himself down on to a barge which he had there in readiness for such an emergency, and escaped disguised to a village where he hid, and whence he took a horse and proceeded to join the Governor of Cambay, for he feared Malik Ayaz because he could not trust him, as much as he feared our people on whose account he had shed so much blood."

where, according to most Moslem suthorities, the Egyptian contingent comprised only ten vessels.

The expedition which left Suez in May, 1507, is fully described by ad-Dayba', and even more fully by Hájji ad-Dabír. It is not, however, mentioned by Qutb ud-Dín in either of his histories, and the fact that the later writers have followed Qutb ud-Dín rather than ad-Davba' has led to considerable confusion. Ad-Davba' tells that in response to the appeals received from the King of the Yaman and several rulers in Western India, Qánsawh al-Ghawri, the Mamluk Sultan of Egypt, appointed Amír Husayn Governor of Jedda, and ordered him to proceed with a fleet to India. Ad-Dayba' also says that Amír Husayn was accompanied by Salmán Ra'ís, who had been sent by the Ottoman Sultan, Salim, to help the Ghawri against the Franks. This detail is interesting in connexion with circumstances that (as Mr. Longworth Dames points out on p. 11) many historians, both Portuguese and Indian, speak of the Egyptian fleet as one sent out by the Sultan of Rum, or Constantinople. Goes, on the other hand (part iv, chap. 12), says that Salmán Ra'ís was a Turk by birth, who, after many years as a Mediterranean corsair, entered the service of the Grand Turk, and afterwards fled to the Sultan of Babylonia (i.e. Cairo). Hájji ad-Dabír also tells us that Salmán Ra'ís had been famous as a corsair in the Mediterranean, but he does not say specifically that he accompanied Amír Husayn on his first Indian Expedition.

The account given by Hájji ad-Dabír of this expedition and the sea battle in 1508 off Chaul is as follows:—

In the meantime, the Mamluk sovereign, Qánṣawh al-Ghawri, had been in correspondence with these Muhammedan rulers in India, of whom the principal was Maḥmúd Sháh Begara of Gujarat, through whom co-operation was established with the famous Governor of Diu, Malik Ayáz.¹

In response to the Gujarati and other invitations, preparations for the dispatch of an Egyptian fleet were made by

¹ He is said to have been a Russian by birth.

the Mamluk king, under the orders of Amír Ḥusayn, the Governor of Jedda.

In the month of Muharram, 913, May, 1507, the Turkish Fleet (possibly commanded by Salmán), consisting of two large vessels (barshas), and three small ones (grabs), set sail from Jedda. They passed by Jázán, Kamarán, Matína, and Mokhá, and finally reached Aden. They also made a landing at Abyan. Wherever they went the inhabitants. fled from them. A few months after Amír Husayn set out after them with two large vessels (ad-Dayba' says three large vessels (barshas)), and three small ones from Jedda, and anchored at Bab-al-Mandeb. Ad-Dayba' says no one knew what was his objective. (It is to be noted that the Mir'at-i-Sikandari (Bayley, p. 222) says that there were ten Turkish ships.) And when he finally came near Aden he sent out a small boat with a messenger carrying a request to the Amír Mirján (Barros says "Miramizan" was an Abyssinian converted to Islam) asking permission to enter the port. was granted, and he entered Aden without a shot being fired. Mirján sent two of his officers to welcome him, and Amír Husayn said to them: "Tell the Amír from me that if I had not received orders from the Sultan Qánṣawlı not to enter Aden I should have entered Aden and gone to meet him: tell him, however, that I ask permission to take on board drinking water, firewood, etc." The Amír not only gave him permission to do so in return for certain concessions, but bestowed innumerable favours and robes of honour on his companions. Then the Amír sent him precious gifts and set out for Diu to fight the Franks who had appeared there.

On pp. 37 and 38 of the Arabic History of Gujarat we read:

"And in Ramazan 913 (January, 1508) took place the great engagement with the Franks on the coast of India, and the Sultan [Maḥmúd] set out from Champanir with the intent of making Holy War, and he travelled along the coast as far as Damman, where he halted.

"Now, he had written to Malik Ayaz, the Governor of Junagar and Diu, telling him to make ready to attack the Franks by sea, and the sortie of Ayaz from Diu coincided with the arrival of Amır Husayn, the Egyptian, at the head of two galleons and three fusts, which had been sent by the Lord of Egypt, Qánṣawh al-Ghawri, to the Indian Ocean and Hormuz against the Franks, for he had heard of the mischief being wrought by the Franks in those two seas. And Ayaz went out to meet him with all ceremony, and expressed his great delight at his arrival, paying him every possible mark of attention and respect as was due-nay, even more than was due. Then these two captains took their fleets in the direction of Chaul to give battle: Amír Husayn acting as vanguard. The Franks appeared upon the coast of Chaul and had collected many men, but God Most High protected the True Faith, and many of the Franks were put to the sword and a number of their ships were broken, many of them were taken prisoners, while others, boarding such ships as remained seaworthy, fled from the sword to the shore, hotly pursued by Ayáz, who killed 7,000 of them, and took prisoners even more, so that the total of those who perished reached 10,000, while the number of the martyrs among Amír Ḥusayn's Turkish troops was 400, and the martyrs among the troops of Ayaz amounted to 600. (May God exalt their rank!). And Aváz wrote to the Sultan announcing the victory, which he attributed to Mahmúd's good fortune, and Mahmúd gave praise to God, and set out for the port of Bassein, where he encamped on the shore. And Melik Ayáz returned to him and cast anchor in that part, and when he and Amír Husayn reached the shore the Sultan rode out to meet them with great honour to celebrate the Holy War, and led them back to his pavilion, and honoured them with every kind of favour and mark of esteem, especially Amír Husayn, whom he desired to keep with him, offering him, if he remained, the command of Mahaim, but Husayn excused himself on the plea that his Sultan had ordered him to proceed to Hormuz to

attack the Franks, but that when he had accomplished this he would reconsider the matter; and he remained in the enjoyment of favours and gifts until he was allowed to depart with all the stores required and set out for Hormuz."

Now, Qutb ud-Dín in both his histories has a good deal to say about Amír Husayn, and it is almost impossible to reconcile his statements with those of the two Arabic historians referred to above or with the Portuguese chronicles. He says in the Barq al-Yamáni: "'Amir ibn 'Abdul Wahháb, · King of the Yaman, called on the Sultan of Egypt for help at the same time as did Sultan Muzaffar of Gujarat. Amír Husayn was appointed to command an expedition with Salmán Ra'ís under him. Amír Husayn was appointed Governor of Jedda, where he arrived in A.H. 917 (A.D. 1511-12). He built a strong wall round Jedda, and then (according to the same author's History of Mekka, in A.H. 921 (A.D. 1515)), set out for India, entered the port of Diu and had an interview with Sultan Muzaffar, but finding the Portuguese firmly re-established in Goa, he left India without doing anything, and returned to Kamarán. Now Qutb ud-Dín appears to be alone responsible for this story, which has been copied by later Moslem writers. The Gujarat historians and the Portuguese are both alike silent; and it is hard to believe that such an expedition had it taken place would have been ignored by either. It is equally curious that Qutb ud-Din should be ignorant of Amír Husayn's expedition in 1507-8, and he certainly seems to regard A.H. 921 (A.D. 1515) as the date of the Amír's first journey to India. Ráshid, the Turkish historian, has indeed noted the discrepancy in the various narratives, but offers no explanation. One detail in Qutb ud-Dín's narrative is worthy of notice. He says that an appeal for help was made to Egypt by Sultan Muzaffar of Gujarat in 1511. It was in November of that year that Muzaffar came to the throne, and this detail being correct, one wonders whether there may not be some truth behind the story after all.

It seems at any rate certain that Amír Ḥusayn withdrew

to Kamarán at the end of 1509 and remained either there or in Jedda (of which he was Governor until his death in 1517), until 1515, when a fresh expedition to India was organized by Qánṣawh al-Ghawri, at the request of several of the kings of India, including those of Cambay (Gujarat), and Calicut (Goes, part iv, chap. 12). This is, I fancy, the occasion which Qutb ud-Dín must have had in his mind, though the fleet which left Suez in October, 1515, under the command of Amír IIusa, n and Salmán Ra'ís never got beyond Aden. 1

p. 10. The Fate of Amir Husayn. According to the Portuguese Chronicles, Amir Husayn was thrown into the sea with a stone round his neck by the orders of Salmán Ra'ís.

The manner of his death is no doubt correct, but the Arabic historians give what were no doubt the actual circumstances.

Qutb ud-Dín tells us that no sooner did the victorious Sultan Salím reach Cairo than Sayvid al-Barakát, the Sharíf of Mekka, sent his thirteen-year-old son, Abú Numayy, to wait on the Sultan and offer his congratulations. Salím was highly pleased, and confirmed Barakát in the government of the Holy Towns and the land round about. Salím also sent by Abu Numayy orders that Amír Husayn should be put to death. No doubt the Sultan had heard of the cruelty and unpopularity of the Governor of Jedda. Husayn was, therefore, sent for by the Sharíf, and told that he was to report himself to the Sultan in Cairo. Secret instructions were, however, given to the captain to drop him overboard as soon as the open sea was reached.

p. 12. Albuquerque's Attack on Aden in 1513.—In the year 1513 the great Albuquerque set out towards Arabia "to look for the fleet of the Rumes"; and his unsuccessful attack on Aden is one of the most romantic episodes in the history of Portuguese adventure. The account contained in his own Commentaries has long been accessible to the English reader,

¹ Qutb ud-Dín, however, says that when in A.H. 926 (A.D. 1519) Husayn Beg Rúmí was made Governor of Jedda he found there "a number of fully armed ships which Husayn Kurdí had taken to India and had brought back again for Qúnşawh al-Ghawri.

but not so, I believe, that of Barros, and it may be of interest to see side by side the translation of salient passages from the description given in Decada II, with that given by the Arabic writers.

I am led to suppose that when Amír Husayn had heard that the Portuguese were about to enter the Red Sea he withdrew from the Island of Kamarán to Jedda, which he had fortified with great strength in anticipation of Portuguese attacks; and that he only returned to Kamarán when he learnt that the Portuguese had returned to India.

ALBUQUERQUE'S ATTACK ON ADEN.

(i) According to Barros Decada II, Liv. VII, Chaps. 9 seq., Albuquerque having captured the fort of Benestarim, and having placed matters on a sound footing in Goa (he had also concluded a treaty of peace with the Samori (Samudri Rájá) by which he was allowed to build a fortress at Calicut), set out for the Red Sea with a fleet of twenty sail on February 7, 1513. His orders from Dom Manuel I, which he disclosed to his captains when they had reached the open sea, were to conquer Aden and then attack the Egyptian fleet in the Red Sea.

When he first reached Aden he received on board Mír Mirján, an Abyssinian by birth, who had turned Mussulman, Commander of the town, who came to inquire whether Albuquerque needed any supplies for his fleet; to which Albuquerque replied that he had come to look for the Armada dos Rumes, which was said to have been sent out from Suez by the Sultan of Cairo, and he wished to save them the trouble of going to look for him in India! Albuquerque, after an exchange of compliments, asked Mirján to acknowledge the suzerainty of the king of Portugal—which Mirján ultimately refused.

During the three days spent in the harbour Albuquerque was able to decide on his plan of attack, and eventually it was determined that his whole force should engage in a scaling assault on an arm of the city wall which ran along the sea front. His forces numbered 1,400 men, one thousand Portuguese, and four hundred Malabaris. The attacking party went to the shore in small boats, carrying with them scaling ladders so wide that six men could ascend side by side. The Aden garrison had decided to entice the Portuguese within the city walls and fight them there rather than outside, where they would be at the mercy of the superior artillery of the Franks. (This is borne out by the Arabic accounts.) There followed a very keen competition among the Portuguese for the honour of being the first to scale the town walls. We are told that the men, in their enthusiasm, jumped out of their boats into the sea, carrying their ladders and shouting "To the wall! To the wall!"

(The Arabic accounts say that Mirján gave orders for no notice to be taken of the besieging force till they got into the town—we are, nevertheless, told that one of the first Portuguese to mount the wall, Fernandez de Beja, who was in charge of the ladder which Albuquerque was to use, was knocked down by a musket shot fired from the wall.) But their keenness was such that they broke the ladders with their weight. When Albuquerque saw this he sent the halbardiers of his guard to prop up the ladders with their spears, but many who were pushed back from the walls fell transfixed by these spears—que foi cousa piedosa de ver! The chief success of the attack lay in the occupation by Garcia de Sousa of a cubello (fortified turret or "pill box").

Meanwhile Mír Mirján rode out, with others also, on horseback, and pressed down upon those who had entered the town. This the attackers could not resist, and most turned in flight back to the walls, while a few joined G. de Sousa in his turret. The Moors brought straw, and placing it below this turret, set fire to it in order to smoke the men out. Whereupon Albuquerque sent ropes by which they could let themselves down. Garcia de Sousa refused to use a rope, and when Albuquerque called out telling him to do so he made the spirited reply: "Senor, I am not the man to come down in

any other way than that by which I came up: and since you cannot help me except with a rope, God grant me His help, for I sorely need it." He died a true hero.

When the fighting had lasted four hours, Albuquerque decided to withdraw his men to their ships. A council of war was held, and though many of his captains were in favour of renewing the attack, Albuquerque decided that they should at once pass through the Straits as the season was late—and "leave the chastisement of that town for another time".1

Employing Muhammedan pilots, since there were no Portuguese who knew the Red Sea, they set sail next day, and (at the beginning of April?) reached the Island of Kamarán. Here Albuquerque captured four ships, one a richly laden merchantman belonging to the Sultan of Cairo which was bound for Jedda. (It seems that whenever Kamarán was attacked most of the inhabitants deserted it, going to Lohaya and elsewhere on the coast. Barros says: e parece estarem alli mais por causa de algum proveito que recebiam das náos que vinhum fazer aguada, que por folgar de habitar a terra.) It is interesting to note that Albuquerque found the island governed by a slave placed there by the king of Aden with a garrison, from which the king derived a large revenue, principally from the fisheries. (At this date we hear nothing of Mír Husayn in Kamarán.)

Albuquerque wished now to proceed to Jedda, but the winds were unfavourable, and after coasting round on either shore of the Red Sea (John Gomes was sent on shore on the Abyssinian coast) they decided in the month of May to anchor in Kamarán.

On the 15th July Albuquerque, after utterly devastating Kamarán, "sem ficas pedra sobre pedra, porque quantos

¹ One of the bastions on the strip of land which ran into the sea was meanwhile working havoc among Albuquerque's ships. This bastion was captured by Manuel de Lucerda, who cruelly put the garrison to death.

edificios dos antigos estarem em pé," levelled it with the ground, so that the Moors of Jedda should not build defences there to prevent future Portuguese fleets from landing. On his way through the Straits he sent Ruy Galvão and John Gomez to explore Zayla' with two ships.

When Albuquerque reached Aden he found it in a much stronger state of defence than when he had left it, for the inhabitants had directed their whole time and energies repairing the damage done, and to building large cannons. He remained ten days, waiting for the monsoon, nothing being achieved beyond the capture of a few vessels in the harbour, and certain foolhardy enterprises. See Barros II, viii, 4 pp., 294–301. Albuquerque left Aden on the 4th August, 1513.

He reached Diu after a journey of only twelve days; and having there entered into an agreement with Malik Ayáz regarding the establishment of a factory, he set out for Goa.

(ii) According to Hajji ad-Dabir and ad-Dayba'. Muharam A.H. 919 (March A.D. 1513) the people of Aden, the Yemenites, learnt that the Franks were about to attack them with nineteen (some writers give eighteen) vessels, 'Amir sent a force to protect Aden frontier, and ordered prayers to be read five times a day in all the Mosques. 'Amir having heard of their approaching attack, appealed to Qánsawh for help. Qánsawh sent an envoy and an agreement was reached by which 'Amir was to make certain concessions in territory to Qánsawh in return for his assistance. The Franks reached Aden on Friday night, the 17th Muharram (26th March, 1513), and nobody was aware of their arrival, and as soon as dawn came they were observed by the people in the town and the people on the including Mirján, who commanded the town. He gave orders for the town to be put in a state of siege inside, but outwardly pretended to ignore their presence (and the Franks captured some of their cargo ships without opposition), and then made a landing with more than forty ladders, and

they thought it would be an easy matter to capture Aden as nobody appeared; and they placed their ladders on the outer walls of the town and ascended the ladders, and some of the Franks entered the town. Thereupon Mirján (Muhammedan histories say that Mirján alone was on horseback, while Barros says (Decada II, liv. viii, chap. ix) " ao qual tempo acudis mira mirzan a cavallo com outras que o sequiam tembem a cavallo") gave orders to make a sortie against them from the broken gateway, and they attacked them and seized the ladders and killed many of the Franks, and captured four of them. The rest of the Franks who were able, escaped to their ships, and, hoisting sail, fled from the port, after sinking all the ships belonging to Aden, of which there were more than forty (Compendio, p. 191, says thirty merchantmen) so that they might not be followed. They proceeded to Bab-al-Mandab, and then to Mokhá and Matína, but in each of these ports the local garrison drove them off. The Franks next attacked Hodeida, but without success, so that they set out for Kamarán, which they entered at the beginning of the month of Safar, A.H. 919, April, A.D. 1513, and which they plundered, killing a number of the inhabitants. They then put out to sea again, after destroying Kamarán so that no trace of it was left, and when they reached Aden a few weeks later with sixteen ships they dropped anchor where they had anchored before. They had, in the meantime, sent two ships to Zeyla' and destroyed all the craft in the harbour; when all these ships reached Aden their arrival was warmly greeted by the others, who fired their guns for joy and spread their banners. And before the arrival of these two boats they had tried to capture Aden by ruse, but could not discover the best way of approach; but after the arrival of the two ships they made ready for battle again, and burned everything they found in the way of timber. Then they disembarked on the shore by night in small boats, and the sea was very rough, and the people on the hill called Sira saw them landing, and informed the people of Aden accordingly,

who thereupon got ready their arms and drew up in battle order on the shore and when they landed from their boats on the shore (and they were not aware that the Musulmans were awake), the Musulmans charged them from sides and opened fire from the town batteries and from the Musulmans' ships, and a great battle ensued, and God gave victory to the Musulmans, who killed the advance party (?) of the Franks, including their commander and seven other captains. There were also many wounded. The rest fled back to the small boats, but the Moslems remained on shore, fearing the rising tide on the shoal. And on the second day the man who had taken command of the Franks ordered them to again make a landing, but they refused and despaired of capturing the town, or the warships which were on the shore, which they had desired, and certain of the merchant vessels, which were unarmed; and, meantime, the guns of the fort were destroying daily two or three of the big ships of the Franks, so they fled disappointed from Aden towards India.

p. 12. The Egyptian Attack on Aden in A.D. 1516.

The circumstances which led up to this expedition, though only indirectly connected with the Portuguese, are of considerable interest to the historian of the period. Although the attack was unsuccessful, it achieved what Albuquerque had been unable to do in reducing the defences of the place, and it was only the stupidity of his successor, Lopo Soares, which prevented the Portuguese from taking undisputed possession of that important harbour and city. Up to the last year of Qánṣawh al-Ghawri's reign (A.D. 1516) the Yaman had been ruled by the independent dynasty of the Táhirids (also called 'Āmirids). Their most important towns were the fortified ports of Aden and Zabíd.

On his first visit to Aden in 1507, Amír Ḥusayn had been received in a friendly way and had obtained provisions. Some time between his return from India in 1509 and the year

1515 he had received a rebuff from the Governor of Aden, which made him resolve on the conquest of the Yaman. It is impossible, in view of the conflicting narratives, to determine in what year the Governor refused to send the supplies demanded by Amír Ḥusayn; some writers imply that it was immediately after his return from India, others that it was in 1515.

In 1513, when news reached Aden of the impending attack of the Portuguese, the King of the Yaman appealed to the Sultan Qánṣawh al-Ghawri for help, in return for which he agreed to make certain territorial concessions to the Mamluk Sultan, but ere such help could arrive the Portuguese had been driven off, and although the help was no longer required, the Sultan insisted on the fulfilment of the terms. This the King of the Yaman refused to carry out, and when this refusal was reported to the Sultan he lost his temper and ordered Salmán Ra'ís, who happened to be in Cairo, to go and conquer the Yaman with Amír Ḥusayn.

Since his return to Kamarán at the end of 1513, Amir Husayn had been busy making alliances with various Yamanite (chiefly Zaydi) chiefs, and had planned an attack on Zabíd without informing Qánsawh al-Ghawri.

We have seen that according to both the Portuguese and Arabic sources a fleet had been got ready in Suez for a fresh expedition to India. According to Goes this fleet, under command of Salmán Ra'ís, sailed from Suez in October of that year; and we can only presume that a fleet which was originally intended to help the Muhammedans in India against the Portuguese was ordered by the enraged Mamluk Sultan to undertake instead the conquest of the Yaman before proceeding to India.

The gist of a most confused set of narratives seems that Amír Ilusayn and Salmán Ra'ís finally joined forces at a place called Nakhl Wádi, near Zabíd, on the 15th June, 1516. They then advanced overland to attack Zabíd, which they captured after various engagements on the 20th June. Leaving

a Circassian officer in charge of Zabíd and the army, Amír Ilusayn returned to his ships with Salmán, and they spent a month in Zayla' repairing their ships and replenishing their stores preparatory to an attack on Aden.

They reached Aden on 31st July, 1516, with a fleet of twenty-one vessels, and there they learned that the merchant ships of Aden had set out for India on the day of their arrival. We are told they actually saw the sails on the horizon.

Salmán Ra'ís at once set out after these merchantmen, and overtaking one of the King of Yaman's own ships, replaced the captain and pilot by men of his own and sent a letter by them to the "Lords of India" announcing that he had conquered the Yaman, and that his fleet was about to sail for India. Salman Ra'ís then continued the attack on Aden, which had been begun by Amír Husayn during his temporary absence. The attack seemed unlikely to succeed from the arst, and Amír Husayn, after a few days, retired to Jedda laden with booty, leaving Salmán Ra'ís to continue his hopeless task. Finally, on the 20th Rajab, 19th August, he abandoned the attack, thankful to escape alive.

We are not told what happened to Salmán after his with-drawal from Aden, but it may be presumed that he remained in the Yaman until the death of Amír Ḥusayn, whom he succeeded as Governor of Jedda in A.H. 923 (A.D. 1517).

More will be said about Salmán Ra'ís in my notes on the following period.

Colonel Ahmad Ráshid in his History of the Yaman and Saua'á considers it unlikely that Sultan 'Āmir appealed to Qánṣawh al-Ghawri for help, but that Amír Ḥusayn was possibly sent to the Yaman by the Mamluk Sultan in order to keep a check on the Franks and prevent their ultimately attacking the Egyptian coast (i.e. Jedda or Suez). The Turkish historian, however, seems to give preference to another view which would fully account for Amír Ḥusayn's attempted conquest of the Yaman. He points out that at this time (i.e. in 1516) the extensive foreign conquests of

Sultan Salím had filled the Mamluk Government with alarm, and that they ordered Amír Ḥusayn to go and conquer the Yaman bit by bit in order that, in the event of Egypt being conquered by the Ottoman Sultan, the Mamluks might have in the Yaman a place of refuge whither in case of need they could withdraw and possibly again assume power.

(To be continued.)

The Dispersion of the Kurds in Ancient Times

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THE territory occupied by the Kurdish race in historictimes seems to have been the district called by the Greeks Kardûchia, and by both Greeks and Romans Corduene or Gordiaea,1 and by the Syriac writers Qardū, whence the earliest Arabic authorities derived the name Qardo, the country bounded roughly on the north by Armenia, on the west by the river Euphrates, on the south by the Arabian desert, and on the east by the ancient kingdom of Media. Strabo, the Greek geographer, states that Armenia and Atropatene consisted of prosperous districts, but that the northern part was a mountainous country occupied by wild bribes, such as the Kyrtii, nomads and brigands dispersed over the whole of Armenia and extending eastwards over the Zagros mountains. More closely he defines the land of the Gordiaei, whom the earlier writers called Karduchi, by locating it on the banks of the Tigris and by adding that one of its chief cities was Pinaka, the modern Finik, "a very strong fortress, having three hill-tops, each fortified with its own wall, so as to form as it were a threefold city; yet Armenians subjugated it and Romans took it by storm, although the Gordiaei were

phylactus Simocatta, Historia, ii. 10, 3.

¹ The root underlying these names seems to have been Gortu, of which the Armenians formed a plural Gortukh, Kurds, by adding the regular termination kh; from this the Greeks borrowed the word Καρδοῦχοι, retaining the termination of the Armenian plural, as heard in some form of Urarmenisch current in the days of Xenophon, and only assimilating -nkh to the familiar Greek termination -οῦχος. The same phenomenon also occurs in Xenophon in the case of a neighbouring tribe called by him the Τάοχοι (Anabasis, iv, 4, 18; 6, 5; 7, 1; v, 5, 17), whom Stephanus of Byzantium states to have been called the Táoι by Sophænetus (Steph. Byz., s.r. Τάοχοι; Sophæn., fragm. 4, in Müller's Fraymenta Historic-orum Graccorum, vol. ii, p. 75). Later the Armenian termination -kh was dropped and the Greek gentilic terminations -αῖος οr -ηνός were added, forming Γορδιαῖος οr Καρδυηνός, which thus passed over into Latin.

2 Strabo, Geographica, xi, 13, p. 523, and xv, 3, 1; see also Theo-

apparently good builders and skilled in siege-works, for which reason Tigranes so employed them." 1 Immediately adjoining the province of Carduene lay on the west Arzanene, on the south Zabdiene, and on the north Moxoene. Further off on on the north Armenia reached from the Antitaurus range, past the north of Lake Wan, then called Lake Thospitis, beyond Mount Niphates, as far as the River Artaxes. south-west of Armenia lay the districts of Ingilene and Sophene, from Malatîvah almost as far as Âmid, now the town of Divârbakr, while between the latter place and Hierapolis, now called Jirablûs, lay Osrhoene, whose capital was Urhâi (Edessa). The whole of the southern side, below Zabdikene, was bounded by the province of Mesopotamia. Beyond Mesopotamia, from Carduene towards the south-east, the whole range of hilly country past Arbela or Arbīl as far as the Dialas, now the Divâlâ, was called Adiabene. To the north-east of Adiabene lay Atropatene, and beyond that again the vast, illdefined province of Media.2 Thus the ancient province of Carduene was but a small district, bosomed in the hills between Diyârbakr, Naşîbîn, and Zâkhū, and of far smaller extent than the land now known as Kurdistân. Its exact limits, however, always remained somewhat uncertain. Strabo's description is probably the most exact; for, while admitting that some people considered the Gordiaean hills the whole chain that ran from the Taurus range in the neighbourhood of Edessa, the modern Urfah, to Nisibis (Nasîbîn) and beyond, thus dividing Sophene and the rest of Armenia from Mesopotamia, he himself states that they are the hills which lie astride the Tigris above Naşîbîn.3 Plinius says that the Gordyaei adjoin the Azoni, from whom the modern town of Hazzū perhaps has derived its name.4 Philostorgius, in

¹ Id. ib., xvi, 1, p. 747.

² Id. ib., ii, 1, p. 26; xi, 14, pp. 527, 529; xii, 13, p. 532; xvi, 1, pp. 736, 739, 746.

 $^{^3}$ Id. ib., xi, 12, p. 522. Ptolemeus located them at $75^{\circ}/39^{\circ}$ 40' (Geographia, v. 12, 3; see also v. 12, 9).

⁴ Plinius, Historia Naturalis, vi, 30, 118.

his ecclesiastical history, records that the Tigris, flowing down from the Hyrcanian Sea, by which he probably means Lake Wân, receives visible additions in Cordiaea as it flows past Assyria; and this points to the same locality, for countless streams flow down from the mountains above Naṣîbîn and Jazîrat-ibn-'Umar and there empty themselves into the Tigris.¹ The definition of Julius Honorius is even more close, for he states that Corduena, which he calls a town, is enclosed by the rivers Chrysorroas and the Tigris.²

The reference to Cordvene or Qardū, as the Syriac writers called it, need nowlong detain the reader. Its locality is vague and uncertain in Jewish and Christian exegetical writers, and mention of it is almost confined to the history of mythical events which are supposed to have occurred there. Of these that which most frequently recurs is its identification with the land in which lay Mount Arārāt, a clear proof of the ignorance of these writers, for that mountain is situated to the north of Wân, between the lake and the river Araxes. Its importance to them lay in the fact that it was there, in the land of Qardū, that the ark of Noah was supposed to have come to rest after the deluge had subsided, a tradition which seems to have originated with Berossus in the third century before Christ.³ Another class occurs in those ecclesiastical writers who divide the world among the sons of Noah, and by whom Corduene is allotted to the sons of Shem, 4 while a writer

¹ Philostorgius, *Historiae Ecclesiastica*, iii, 7. where "Syria" is clearly an error for "Assyria"; this passage is copied in Nicephorus Callistus, *Historia Ecclesiastica*, ix. 19.

² Julius Honorius, Cosmographia, B. 10.

³ Berossus, Fragment No. 7 in Bibliotheca Gracorum Scriptorum, vol. 11, pp. 501-2; Josephus, Antiquitates 1, 3, 6; Eusebius, Onomasticon, p. 208, s.r. Ararat; Chronicon (ed. Karst), p. 11; Epiphanius, Adversus Hæreses, i, 1, 4, who calls it "the land of the Cardyei"; Die Schatzhohle (ed. Bezold), Syr. p. 98, Arab. p. 99; Ibn Khurdâdhbih Al-Masâlik wa-'l-Mamâlik (ed. de Goeje), pp. 76 and 245, who states that the ark came down, not on Mount Arârât, but on the Jabal Jûdî in Qardā; Dionysius of Telmahrê in Asseman's Bibliotheca Orientalis, vol. ii, p. 113.

⁴ Epiphanius, Adversus Hæreses, ii, 2, 82; Chronicon Pascale (ed. du Fresne), p. 31d.

in the Jewish Talmud states that Abraham resided for seven years in the land of Qardū.¹ But the historians of the Syriac church mention Qardū innumerable times as a Nestorian diocese with its episcopal see at Gāzartâ or Bāzabdâ, ranking between the sees of Beled and Arzûn in the province of Nasîbîn.²

Although the Arab historians and geographers rarely mention Qardā and Bāzabdâ by their Syriac names, which . gave place to their own more exact nomenclature, Ibn Khurdâdhib, who flourished in the ninth century of the Christian era, is an exception. In a list of the chief places in the district of Divar Rabī'ah, he mentions Nasîbîn, Amid, Râs 'Ain, Mîyârfâriqîn, Mârdîn, Bâ'arbâvâ, Balad Sinjâr, Qardā, and Bâzabdā,3 and adds that "a poet has said that Qardā and Bâzabdâ offer an excellent sojourn in the spring and in the summer, for the water there is sweet and cool, delicious as salsabil", the wine (or the lake) of the Muslim paradise. In another passage of the same author it is stated that the revenue of Qardā and Bâzabdâ in his time was 3,200,000 dirhems a year, while that of Mausil was 6,300,000, of Diyâr Rabî'ah 9,635,000, and of Arzar and Mîyârfâriqîn jointly 4,200,000 dirhems.5

After Ibn Khurdâdhib the name Qardā vanishes from the Arabic writers, whose testimony, however, becomes of great

¹ Babylonian Talmud, Bābâ Bathrâ, 91a.

² "Primates Orientis," in Asseman's Bibliotheca Orientis, ii, p. 548; Bar Hebræus (ib.), ii, p. 262; Thoma Historia Monastica (ib.), iii, pt. i, p. 499; Amri et Şlîbâ, de Patriarchis Nestorianorum Commentaria (ed. Gismondi), p. 80. Another Syriac writer records that two forts had to be built to prevent Persian marauders crossing the frontiers and penetrating in Qardā and Arzûn and pillaging Naṣībîn and Râs-ul-'Ain, the respective capitals of those two provinces (Wright, Catalogue of Syriac Manuscripts at Cambridge, p, 1136, col. ii).

³ Al-Balâdhurî (c. A.D. 892) mentions the conquest of Qardā and Bâzabdâ by 'Iyâḍ ibn Ghanam in A.D., 640 (Al-Futâḥ, p. 176), and Ibnul-Faqîh (c. A.D. 903) mentions both in a list of places in Jazîrah (Al-Buldân, in de Goeje's Bibliotheca Geographorum Arabicorum, p. 136).

⁴ Ibn Khurdâdhib, op. cit., p. 95.

⁵ Id. ib., p. 251.

importance in illustrating the wide diffusion of the Kurds. Al-Yaqûbî, writing towards the close of the same century as Ibn Khurdâdhib, states that the home of the Kurds is the Jabal or the hill country to the east of 'Irâq and on the western frontier of Persia,1 that in the caliphate of 'Umar ibn-ul-Khattâb (A.D. 634-43) they overran Mâsibdhân, 'Ajam and As-Saimarah in the Marj-ul-Afyâh,2 and that together • with the Arabs they formed the greater part of the population of Ḥulwan and Qarmiṣin,3 while Kurds also were to be found settled in the province of Isfahân.4 Ibn Rustah (c. A.D. 903), mentions Kurds dwelling in tents in the desert plains of 'Irâq to the south of Al-Madâ'in,5 and others infesting the road from Darawâstân to Marj-ul-Qala'ah.6 A little later Al-Mas'ûdî (c. A.D. 943) attests their presence in the Jibâl 7 and in Adharbaijan, where their clans pass under the name of shurât, and one of whose chiefs, Aslam, surnamed Ibn Shâdliwaih, ruled over wide districts in Adharbaijân, Arrân, Al-Bailagân, and Armenia⁸; he adds also that there were a number of Jacobite Christians among the Kurds living in the territory of Mausil and the Jabal Jûdî.9 In another work the same author relates that Kurds were found in Kirmân, Sijistân, Khurâsân, Işfahân, the Jibâl, in and around Kûfah and Başrah in Mesopotamia, and in other places between Mesopotamia and Persia, in Hamadhân, Shahrazûr, Darâbâdh Aş-Şâmighân, Arrân, Adharbaijân, and Armenia, in the Jazîrah, and even in Svria. 10 Istakhrî, writing about the same

¹ Al-Yaqûbí, Al-Buldân (ed. de Goeje) in Bibliotheca Geographorum Arabicorum, vol. vii, p. 236.

² Id. ib., p. 270, s.r. Aş-Şamiarah.

³ Id. ib., p. 270, s.v. Hulwân.

⁴ Id. ib., p. 275.

⁵ Ibn Rustah, Al-A'lâq-un-Nafîsah (ib.), vol. vii, p. 128.

⁶ Id. ib., p. 165.

⁷ Al-Mas'ûdî, Murûj-udh-Dhahab (ed. de Meynard and de Courteille), vol. iii, p. 253.

⁸ Id. ib., vol. v, p. 231.
⁹ Id. ib., vol. iii, p. 253.

¹⁰ Id., At-Tunbîh wu'l-Ishrâf (ib.), vol. viii, pp. 88-91; elsewhere he mentions 'Alî ibn Dâ'ûd the Kurd as a prominent chief near the Jabal Jûdî in the land of Zauzân (or Zawazân) (id. ib., p. 54). Zawazân is described by Yâqût as "a fair province between the mountains of

time (c. A.D. 951), mentions a village of Kurds in Isdâbâdh 1 and a city called Kurd,2 of which the buildings were of mud or clay, in a district in the vicinity of Isfahân,3 so cold, however, that neither crops not fruits could be grown there; 4 and in the district also of Bâzanjân the Kurds, under their chief Shahriyan, were the predominant element in the population.⁵ In the Oriental Geography, which was probably also the work of Istakhrî, it is stated that the tribes of the Kurds' were at that time already more than could be numbered, and that there were more than 500,000 khanat, settlements or families, of them in the province of Fars alone; these people were wont to remain on their pastures both winter and summer and some of the wealthier Kurds used to maintain two hundred or more serfs working as shepherds, labourers, grooms, pages, and domestic servants; 6 and amongst the places which they frequented are mentioned Shahrazûr and Shahrawar, which were completely in their hands,7 while a few also were to be found on the confines of Sarûr and Jarûr.8 Ibn Haugal (c. A.D. 978) imparts the interesting information that in certain districts of Persia a Kurdish chief was charged with the collection of the tribute in each nahiyah or administrative

Armenia, Khılât, Adharbaijân, Diyârbakr, and Mausil, of which the inhabitants are Armenians, although there are also Kurdısh families there", in which he certainly seems to underestimate the Kurdish population (Mu'jam-ul-Buldan, ii, 957, s.c. Zawazân).

¹ Al-Istakhrî, Mas'alik-ul-Mamâlik (ib.), p 283.

² Id. ib., p. 103. ³ Id. ib., pp. 125-6.

⁴ Id. ib., p. 137. Ibn Hauqal (c. A.p. 978) also mentions the city of Kurd (Al-Masâlik wa'l-Mamâlik, ib., pp. 182, 196), but states on the contrary that it was very fertile (id. ib., pp. 197, 214). Elsewhere Al-Istakhri records that the chief of the Kurds in this district, by name Azârmard ibn Khûshâdh, rebelled; but was defeated by the Sultan and field to Umân, where he died; the amîr who succeeded him was Al-Husain ibn Şâlih, and the government of the district remained in his hands and in those of his descendants until the time of 'Amr ibn ul-Laith, who deprived them of it and transferred it to Sâsân ibn Ghazwân, who was also a Kurd and in whose family it remained until Istakhri's own time (op. cit., p. 145).

⁵ Id. ib., p. 145.

⁶ [Istakhrî], Oriental Geography (ed. Ouseley), p. 83.

⁷ Id. ib., p. 171. ⁸ Id. ib., p. 92.

district, with the care of the whole area under his control, with the upkeep of the roads, with the duty of ensuring the safe passage of caravans through it, and with the general supervision of the Sultan's interests. At the end of the same century Al-Muqaddasî (c. A.D. 985) reports that Kurds were dwelling in buildings of mud and also of stone in the district of Dabîl, that Salmâs was surrounded by Kurds, and that Qandarîyah in the same neighbourhood was a town which the Kurds Genselves had built.

In the two following centuries the geographers have nothing further to record about the Kurds, and it is not till the time of Yâqût (c. A.D. 1225) that any more information of importance is forthcoming. From him we learn that there were five zumûm or quarters in Persia occupied by Kurds 3 and that each zamm contained several towns and villages; the taxes were collected by an official appointed by the Kurds themselves, who were responsible also for escorting caravans through their own territory, for the security of the roads, and for the maintenance of troops to serve the Sultan in time of war, and who, apart from these obligations, were virtually independent. The five zumûm were those of Zinjân, between Işfahân and Arrajân, Bâzinjân in the Jibâl, a district rich in villages and well-tilled fields in the valleys, Zîzân and Rihân near Ardashîr, and Kâriyân near Kirunân.4 He further mentions that there were two cities named Kurd in Persia 5 and that Zawazân was a vast tract of country between the mountains of Armenia, Adharbaijan, Diyarbakr, and Mausil, lying at a distance of a two days' journey from that city and reaching as far as Khilât, whose population was composed almost entirely of Armenians and Kurds.⁶ From the same work a considerable amount of detailed information can be

¹ Ibn Ḥauqal, op. cit., pp. 185-7. He also mentions a Qariyat-ul-Akràd or "Village of the Kurds" in the middle of the district of Isdâbâdh in Khurāsân (op. cit., p. 331).

² Al-Muqaddasî, Ahsan-ut-Taqûsîm (ib.), p. 277.

³ Yâqût, Mu'jam-ul-Buldân (ed. Barbier de Meynard), pp. 263, 410, who is perhaps only copying from Ibn Hauqal, as quoted above.

⁴ Id. ib., pp. 263-4. ⁵ Id. ib., p. 479. ⁶ Id. ib., p. 290. JRAS. OCTOBER 1921. 37

gleaned. Kurds, he relates, occupied Bardha'ah, a city known also as "the Gate of the Kurds", Baida, where 'Alî ibn Husain the Kurd lived,2 Jurdhaqîl, which was also called Bukhtîyah, in Zawazân,3 Dasht, a small town between Arbîl and Tabrîz, 4 Dawîn near Arrân on the borders of Adharbaijân, the original home of the Aiyûbî dynasty, 5 Sabûr near Shîrâz, 6 Sarmâj between Hamadhân and Qûjistân, a town belonging to Badr ibn Hubbiwaih the Kurd, who ruled also Sâbûr-Khast,7 Sîsar in Hamadhân, which they had long owned,8° Sharmakh, which they built themselves almost entirely with materials taken from Nahâwand,9 and Shahrazûr, whose inhabitants were a branch of the Kurds notorious for rebellion and insubordination; 10 in the province of Fârs he computes that there were 500,000 tents belonging to the Kurdish tribes, who spent both summer and winter on their pasture-grounds,11 while in Qûhistân there were extensive stretches of country lying between the towns which were entirely occupied by Kurds and various nomad tribes engaged in the breeding of goats and sheep,12 while other Kurds had overrun large parts of Luristân.¹³ Amongst important towns in Kurdistân he includes Alain, 14 Alîshtar, 15 Bahâr, 16 Bâz, a fortress in Zawazân belonging to the Bukhtî Kurds, 17 Khuttiyan, a strong place on the river Zâb,18 Khushan, remarkable for its fertility, its excellent irrigation, and its crops of wheat and fruits of various kinds,19 two small towns of the name of Darband,20 Mâhî-Abâd,21 'Allûs, one of the chief fortresses of the Bukhtî Kurds,²² and Harsîn.²³ One place also he mentions as being occupied by people "like the Kurds" known as the Balûs,24

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<sup>1</sup> Id. ib., p. 92.  
<sup>2</sup> Id. ib., pp. 128, 479-80.  
<sup>3</sup> Id. ib., p. 158.
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⁴ Id. ib., p. 233. ⁵ Id. ib., p. 246.

⁶ Id. ib., p. 294. ⁷ Id. ib., p. 311.

⁸ Id. ib., p. 335; Al-Balâdhurî, Futâḥ-ul-Buldân (ed. de Goeje), p. 310 (= 358).

⁹ Yâqût, op. cit., p. 349. ¹⁰ Id. ib., pp. 356-8. ¹¹ Id. ib., p. 412.

¹² Id. ib., p. 466. ¹³ Id. ib., p. 504. ¹⁴ Id. ib., p. 51.

¹⁵ Id. ib., p. 52. ¹⁶ Id. ib., p. 123. ¹⁷ Id. ib., p. 76.

¹⁸ Id. ib., p. 210.
¹⁹ Id. ib., p. 219.
²⁰ Id. ib., p. 228.

²⁴ Id. ib., p. 115.

and he adds two instances of the baneful effect of the Kurds on districts adjoining their own; Dûr-ar-Râsibî in Qûzistân, which had suffered much from their depredations, and Marand, a town in Adharbaijân, which had lost its former importance and was in his days deserted and half-ruined owing to the continuous inroads of the Kurds, who would not desist from raiding it and carrying off its inhabitants into captivity.

About a century later Mustaufi (c. A.D. 1340) mentions that the inhabitants of Nihâwand were for the most part Kurds of the Shî'î sect, and followers of the "Twelve Imâm", and that the city was the centre of large numbers of nomadic Kurdish horsemen, who were subject to a yearly impost of 12,000 sheep in place of the payment of the usual taxes; and elsewhere he mentions that Shahrazûr, which was built by Qubâd the Sassanian, was so-called since the word meant "the city of strength", because "its governors are always Kurds and he whose strength is greater becomes governor".

The last of the greater Arab travellers and geographers to visit the land of the Kurds was Ibn Baţûţah (c. A.D. 1355), who passed on one side of Râmhurmuz Kurds dwelling in tents who thought themselves to be descended from Arabs, a theory undoubtedly due to the fact that they followed the Arab practice of living all the year round in tents, and on the other a few villages occupied by Kurds, and at Hillah in Mesopotamia he found the population divided into two factions, the one a religious sect known as the People of the Two Mosques and the other the Kurdish party, between whom there raged a perpetual feud. He also visited Sinjâr, whose inhabitants he declares to have been endowed with courage and generosity, and of whose shaikh, the holy

¹ Id. ib., p. 240. ² Id. ib., p. 524.

³ Mustaufî, Nuzhat-ul-Qulûb (ed. Le Strange), p. 76.

⁴ Id. ib., pp. 105-7.

⁵ Ibn Batûtah, Voyages (ed. Defrémery and Sanguinette), vol. ii, pp. 22-3.

⁶ Id. ib., vol. ii, p. 97.

and ascetic 'Adb-ullah the Kurd, he has left it on record that he was reputed to be a worker of miracles and to be in the habit of fasting for forty days and then of only breaking his fast with a piece of barley-bread.¹

The Kurds were, therefore, a widely dispersed people, whose wanderings led them from Khurâsân and Hamadân to the confines of Asia Minor, by Sumaisât and Malaţîyah.2 But in the twelfth century the Saljûqî emperor Sinjâr created. the new province of Kurdistân between Persian and Arabian 'Irâq and put it under the government of his nephew, Sulaimân Shâh. Two centuries later the Mongols reorganized the provinces, when that of Kurdistan was increased by the addition of a large strip of territory previously forming a part of Persian 'Irâq.' Mustaufī the geographer defines the province of Kurdistân as being "bounded by Arabian Irâq, Qûzistân, Persian 'Irâq, Adharbaijân, and Diyârbakr'', and states that, although in the time of the Saljûq the revenues of the province amounted to 2,000,000 dinars 4 annually, they had sunk to 201,500 5 dinars in his own time. Amongst its chief towns he mentions several that are now unknown, and records especially that the people of Darband-i-Zankî were "robbers and highwaymen, an abominable folk".6

¹ Id. ib., vol. ii, p. 141.

² Outside Kurdistân the Kurds did not roam far afield. 1bn-ul-Athir speaks of Kurds in Syria, whom the governor of Aleppo summoned to his aid in A.D. 1082 or 1083 to repel the onset of the Saljûqî Tutush (Kâmil, x, 82), and twenty years later he speaks of a settlement of Kurds living peaceably with their Arab neighbours along the banks of the Khâbûr in A.D. 1101 or 1102 (Kâmil, x, 236); Ibn Khaldûn (A.D. 1332-1406), in his History of the Berbers, mentions the presence of Kurds in Morocco (vol. iii, p. 413), and Auliyâ, the Turkish traveller, came upon some colonies of them on the northern shores of the Black Sea in the seventeenth century. It should be added that the early presence of Kurds in Syria is attested by Hisn-ul-Akrâd or "the Fortress of the Kurds", a stronghold on an almost inaccessible height in the Lebanon.

³ See Le Strange, The Lands of the Eastern Caliphate and Mesopotamia and Persia under the Mongols.

⁴ About £1,000,000 in English money.

⁵ About £100,750 in English money.

⁶ Mustaufi, op. cit., pp. 105-7.

Assyrian Lexicographical Notes

By Professor S. LANGDON

I.-Š.1 RĀPU, TO BURN, HEBREW LĀŠAPH

THIS Semitic root occurs regularly in Hebrew, Phænician, and Aramaic in the form $r-\check{s}-p$, although Syriac agrees with Assyrian in having the metathesis 5-r-b. The regular Semitic form of this root exists in Assyrian in the word rassubatu, flame, conflagration, brilliancy, terror, and is the cognate of Hebrew réseph. The root rašabu, blaze, has been entered in the lexicons with the meaning "be powerful, terrible", and the error still persists, although Jensen indicated the correct root of rašābu, rašbu, and rašubbu, blazing, in his Mythen und kpen, 580. A passage which finally disposes of the old error is CT. 19, 22, 11, izi ú-gug-ga = rà-šub-bat īšāti, Syn. of kibbat išāti, flame of fire. The syllable ra is written with the sign UD, which has the value ra, RA. 10, 74, 18. But it is a rare value and consequently the passage was never understood. The Sumerian word ugug is a derivative of the root gug, to burn,

II.-A NEW CASSITE SEAL

¹ A new example of subur = ardu.

² & I interpret as a variant of uš = rîmu, mercy.

is new. The deity identified with this star is unknown. The gesture of the praying figure reveals Egyptian influence, which is known to have been great in this period. The hands upheld with palms outward is a gesture wholly un-Babylonian and un-Semitic. It occurs on a few other seals of the Cassite period, Collection de Clercq, 276; Delaporte, Catalogue of the Seals in the Musée du Louvre, S. 540; Ward, Seals of Western-Asia, 541.

III.—A BEAD-SHAPED AMULET

Another interesting object recently acquired by the Ashmolean Museum is a small bead-shaped amulet of onyx, perforated lengthwise. It is inscribed with a Sumerian inscription concerning the demon Zi-zi-gál, which throws some light upon similar amulet inscriptions. The curses inscribed on amulets are notoriously difficult, and I am unable to decipher the words NU-E-DA-AŠ and $AB-DA-A\check{S}$. For NU the parallel amulet inscription of the De Clercq Collection, No. 253, has the sign $4 \stackrel{>}{\sim} (zir)$, and consequently NU should be read sir in the parallel passages. A light blue chalcedony flask-shaped amulet of the British Museum has, in the last four lines, an exact duplicate of the Ashmolean text, see Babyloniaca, iii, 11, where my interpretation is to be withdrawn for these An interesting variant is Ebeling, Keilschrifttexte aus Assur, No. 88, fragment 5, Rev. 5, zi-zi-gál NU e-di-es, and cf. ibid. l. 10. The text of the Ashmolean amulet is given below since it is not very clear on the monument.

IV.—(SIZKUR), TO SACRIFICE

The true reading of this important sign is not si-giš-še but si-iz-kur. I have collated CT. 12, 10, 28 and 93034 in CT. 11, 42. Both syllabaries read $\stackrel{\triangleright}{\sim}$ clearly, and $\stackrel{\triangleright}{\sim}$

is distinctly separated from ≥7. These Neo-Babylonian tablets would not write the sign se as * but \$. For Syl. B. iii, 24 the two texts which furnish the reading of the sign (are K. 110 and 7683. The latter text published by Thompson in CT. 11, 19 has only si-iz [], but K. 110 (cf. ii R., Pl 1, 157) has si-1z-kur. sign was written * and then rubbed by the scribe so as to leave .1 There can be no doubt concerning the signs. The most natural rendering is sizkur, but sigiškur is a possibility. The final element kur means "to eat". represents a syllable with a lost final consonant, and hence it is frequently written kú-a, Gudea, Cyl. B. 7, 8; Poebel, PBS. v, 141, 3. Note that this sign has the value ki-ri= kasāsu, to gnaw, PBS, v, 141, 6. The original word for "to eat" was, therefore, kur, not ku. iz-kur may possibly contain the word izi, fire, or more likely the word izi, izzi, sheep; CT. 35, 4, 67; Yale Syl. 164. The first element si possibly represents sig, to give. I suggest that the word means, "To give to eat by fire."

V.—A MANA STONE WEIGHT OF THE PERIOD OF ENTEMENA

The Ashmolean Museum has acquired from Mr. Haysom of Keble College, formerly an officer in the Mesopotamian army, a stone weight in perfect condition. It has a unique form, being pear-shaped, with a deep groove on each side running from the point to the base, and is regarded by Oxford anthropologists as an imitation of a scrotum. The stone is nummulitic and highly polished. The top is pierced by a round hole by which the weight was suspended. The object weighs 680:485 grams or about a pound and a half, and carries the following Sumerian legend engraved in early linear characters:—

ma-na sìg-ba. Du-du šangu. "One mana of wages in wool. Dudu the high priest."

¹ K. 110 was collated for me by Mr. Gadd of the British Museum.

The name "Dudu high priest" fixes the date and gives the monument the distinction of being the most ancient weight now published. Dudu, šangu of Ningirsu god of Lagash, figured prominently in the civic life of that ancient city in the time of the famous patesi Entemena, circa B.C. 2960. A perforated stone tablet carries a figure of this priest in bas-relief and an inscription in which he is called the šangu-maj, "chief priest." Monuments of Entemena were frequently dated by the phrase, "At that time Dudu was high-priest of the god Ningirsu."1 Hitherto the most ancient weight was a small spindleshaped stone of Urukagina, patesi and king of Lagash, who reigned 2891-7 or about sixty years later than Entemena. This stone bears the inscription, "15 shekels, of the god Ningirsu. Urukagina king of Girsu".2 A long period separates the weight which comes next in historical order. It belongs to the period of Ur-Ningirsu, patesi of Lagash and son of Gudea. He lived about 2560 B.C. We meet now with the duck-shaped weight for the first time. The inscription reads, "Two talents, stone, Ur-Ningirsu patesi of Lagash."3

The 15 shekelor 4 mana weight of Urukagina, published by Scheil, Comptes Rendus, 1912, 478 ff., weighs 119·3 grams, which indicates a mana of 477·2 grams. The Ashmolean weight does not carry any figure before the word ma-na, although I could see a scratch which may possibly be \checkmark . The only possible inference is that the weight is a so-called "great mana" of the early period, employed for weighing wool supplied to workmen as their wage. The ordinary light mana of the Sumerians and Babylonians ranges from

¹ See the references cited in Thureau-Dangin, Dic Sumerischen und Akkadischen Königsinschriften, and Clay, Miscellaneous Inscriptions No. 4, Col. ii end, ud-ba ér-ra-ùi Du-du šangu d-Nin-gir-zu-ka-ye, "At that time his servant Dudu was high priest of the god Ningirsu."

² Girsu was a part of Lagash.

³ Text by King in CT. 33, 50, who gives no description of the object, nor its actual weight. See Weissbach, ZDMG. 1916, 49.

about 477 to 520 grams. These ancient peoples were unable to attain precision in the making of weights, and consequently the subject of Babylonian metrology is most perplexing. The great or heavy mana in later times was equal to two light manas. The new weight introduces additional difficulties instead of solving the old ones. A thorough discussion of all the previously published metrological material will be found in Weissbach's two articles in ZDMG. Vols. 61 and 70.

A diorite weight in the private collection of Dr. S. B. Nies, of Brooklyn, N.Y., carries the inscription I ma-na Du-du šangu ur-u-ki, "One mana. Dudu high priest of the city." The object is not fully described in the publication by Nies and Keiser, Historical, Religious, and Economic Texts, No. 19.1



CASSITE SEAL OF THE ASHMOLEAN COLLECTION.

A SUMERIAN CONTRACT FROM ELLASAR

In recent years a large number of economic tablets from Senkereh have appeared in the commerce of antiquity dealers. The Louvre ² in Paris and the Yale Babylonian Collection ³ in America secured a great many. A small

¹ The weight is given as 497.5 grams, which agrees with the ordinary mana of the Sumerian period. Dudu of the Nies weight is probably the same Dudu described above, and the monument also belongs to the period of Entemena.

² Mostly unpublished. Two are published by Thureau-Dangin, RA. 8, 82-85, and the same scholar communicated several date formula in RA. 15, 20 ff.

³ Miss E. M. Grice has published 253 tablets of the Ellasar collection in Records from Ur and Larsa, New Haven, 1919.

collection was sold to the Museum of the University of Wales in 1914, which contains a contract of sale written at Ellasar.¹ The Rev. Chas. Overy, M.A., of Radley College, near Oxford, secured a perfect specimen of the Senkereh archives when he was in the service of the British Army in Mesopotamia. He has kindly shown me the tablet and permitted its publication in our Journal.

The translation follows:-

"Two gan of garden land planted with trees, beside the garden of . . . , beside the garden of Takillisu and beside the garden of Nigga-Nannar. From Sin-magir son of Kuzulum, Nigga-Nannar purchased it. 12/3 mana of silver for its full price he weighed out to him. "That a claim stands against the garden I shall not protest in future days," he swore in the name of the king.

In the presence of Sin-magir son of ...; Ubar-shamash son of ...; Eribam-Sin son of ...; Sin-iribam, son of Zā; Sin-mubaliṭ, son of Kuzulum²; Takillisu son of ... iddin; Tammuz-iddin, son of Da ...; Ur-dAbbau, son of Ili-mābi; ... Shamash, the merchant; Enlil-re'u, the scribe. Month of seed-sowing (4th month).

Year when (by the command of Anu, Enlil, and Enki) the Euphrates, the pure *tišida* of Nannar, which brings the water-supply to Ekur, the abode of life, [the faithful shepherd] Rim-sin [from Erech to the shore of the sea dug, caused its level to rise over the wide plain, and a river for the city Ur made]."

The legal phrase enim-gál in-na-gub-bu, "a claim stands against" is new and perhaps characteristic of the

¹ See my notes on the Aberystwith tablets in *Babyloniaca*, vii, 39-50. The contract concerns a sale of land, and will be found on p. 47 of the article referred to in this note.

² Note that the names of the three sons of Kuzulum, mentioned on this tablet, Sin-magir, Sin-mubalit, and Nigga-Nannar all contain a title of the moon-god.

contracts of Ellasar.¹ Some of the proper names call for explanation. Ta-ki-il-il-su occurs as Ta-ki-il-il-su in King, Letters and Inscriptions of Hummurabi, No. 8, 11. It has been regarded as dialectic for Tākil-ili-šu, "Trusting in his god," (Ranke, Personal Numes of the Hammurabi Dynasty, 168, and Ungnad, Babylonische Briefe, No. 49). Note the contraction ili > li, which supports my contention that la in certain names of the period may be for ila, a western word for god and a particular Arabian deity also. See OLZ. 1910, 12 ff. Certainly šu is expected in this name unless su stands for a verb "to increase" (arābu?), when the name would mean, "He that trusts in god will be increased." But proper names in this period are not written with ideograms, wherefore the suggestion is improbable.

Kuzulum occurs regularly as Kuzullum in the Ellasar texts, see Grice, ibid., 31. Kuzalum occurs once on a Nippur tablet, Chiera, Legal and Administrative Docu-Kuzullu has the appearance of being the ments, 92. secondary formation of kutullu, employed in Babylonian for sobriquets, especially with regard to bedily deformities; see Holma, Personennamen der Form kuttulu, p. 16. fact, the Talmudic kāsûl, kāsûl, means "one with thick loins", and Babylonian kisallu = בכל, means "loin", Thompson, PSBA., 1908, 66, an identification which Holma, Körperteile, p. 155, wrongly rejected. See also for kisallu, loin, Ebeling, Keilschrifttexte aus Assur, 80, 5, and the writer's Sumerian Liturgies and Psalms, 341, 4. Kuzullu is formed from kisallu "loin" on the analogy of a name like Hulukku, "The bald one," and means "He of the big loins".

Za-a-'a, father of Sin-iribam, is certainly the same person as Za-a-a, father of Sin-iribam, in Grice, ibid.,

¹ But note the phrase in the Ellasar contract, Grice, ibid., 134, 14; enim ba-gar-ra é-a-mi Eulil-gamil ba-ni-ib-zi-zi, "If E. make claim for his house, it shall be dismissed."

134, 18. The name $Ur^{-\hat{a}}Abbau$ is interesting. The tablet is extremely difficult to read; the signs appear to be ab-ba-u, which would be a variant of the ordinary title of Tammuz, d-Ab-u. For Ab-ba-u see Tammuz and Ishtar, 8, n. 1.

The tablet is dated by the formula for the twenty-third year of Rim-Sin. The complete text is restored in Revue d'Assyriologie, 15, 8, from variants. Two variants occur on Nos. 149, 150 of the tablets published by Grice, ibid., Pl. LIX.

The date formula is extremely important for the topography of the lower course of the Euphrates in the time of Rim-Sin. On the basis of numerous variants now known, the complete text reads as follows:—

mu dág ² An ^a·Enlil ^d·En-ki-ga-ta ³ id Ruranun-na ti-ši-da azag-ga ^a·Nannar-ge bizem ⁴-tum é-kur-va ⁵ éš nam-til-la-ge

- ¹ According to Thureau-Dangin, the twenty-fourth year. But see AJSL, 35, 225.
- ² Var. Babyloniaca, vi, 45, ka-bar-ra = opening of the mouth, oracular command.
 - 3 Var. ibid., ga-ba-ta-ge.
- 4 The sign is regularly the Overy in the variants, but the Overy a variant gunu form of (ud) = REC. 92, and identified by the writer with [(AJSL., 33, 48). The sign has the values sub-sub, shepherd, and $\delta ub = ban\hat{u}$, shine forth. Note that the N. Pr. Lugal-R-e, Chiera, List of Personal Names, 17, iv, 4; 24, 3; 25, i. 17 has variants (21, 5), (21, 5), ii, 3. The form in 21, 5 is a double-gunu form of (ud), i.e., a gunu-šeššig form. This proves clearly enough the identifications defended in AJSL., 31, 282; 33, 48. But Chiera has found a variant Lugal- Lugal-sib-e, "The king is shepherd," ibid., 276. Note that the sign is not LAGAR + GUNU but UD + GUNU or rather UD + GUNU + SESSIG. See also Clay, Miscellaneous Inscriptions, 12, Rev. vii, 5. In Poebei, PBS. v, 108, 7, the sign is glossed [. . .] si-em = pi-sa-nu-um, bucket, basket, and $(\ldots) = a - lu - u - um$, vase, which indicates a confusion with the sign FYYYY, REC. 429. Note d-NIN-PISAN, CT. 24, 48, 17 = NIN(bi-zi-em) PISAN, 25, 27, K. 2117, 8. The sign PISAN has, therefore,

sib-zid d·Ri-im-d·Sin-e Unug ?-(ki)-ta¹ zag a-ab-ba-šú mu-un-ba-al-lá gú-ki a-kàr² dagal-la im-ta-è-a³ íd uru-a Uri-(ki)-šú im-mi-in-yar-ra.

There can be no doubt concerning the old course of the Euphrates. It passed through Nippur flowing south-south-west to Erech and Ellasar and reached the sea at Eridu. Its course passed above the ancient city Ur, which could not have been situated on the old course of this river. But its southern course probably fell into disuse at the end of the Sumerian period as the sea receded from the old coastline and Eridu henceforth became an isolated inland city of little importance. Rim-sin dug a new channel for the river in a more easterly direction, following more closely the modern course of the river which now flows a few miles east of Ur.

the value bizem, bisem, and the vocabulary cited above read (bi-si-em) \(\overline{\text{Ex}} \) = pisānu, bucket, vase. Note also bi-iz = natāku, sapāku, napāşu, words for "pour out", Scheil, Voc., 130-137. The sign in question was, therefore, confused with two disparate signs, sub, shepherd, and bizem, bucket. For the original sign bizem, see Genouillac, Inventaire, MIO. 892; R. ii, 16, a (duk)-kum-\(\overline{\text{Ex}} \), i.e. a kum-bizem or kind of jar. This is probably the original sense of the sign and its use as sub, sib, shepherd, is secondary.

- ⁵ Var. Grice, 149, 8ú.
- ¹ The only complete text for this line is Grice, 149, which has apparently Ki-UNU-a-šú. The reading UD-UNU (i.e. Ellasar) is doubtful. See also Grice, 155 [Ki-]UNU-(ki)-ya, which points to the reading Unuy-ya.
 - ² Var. Grice, 149, á-kar; 150, a-kar.
- ³ Var. Grice, 150, 58, *i-im-ta-an-è-[a]*; *ibid.*, 149, *be-in-ne*. For *en*, $in = \epsilon d$, \dot{e} , go up, see Sum. Grammar, 213.

MISCELLANEOUS COMMUNICATIONS

THE NAME BY WHICH THE ASSYRJAN LANGUAGE WAS KNOWN IN THE ANCIENT WORLD

It has lately been proposed to substitute the name "Akkadian" for that of "Assyrian", by which the Semitic language of Assyria and Babylonia has hitherto been known to us. In the tablets which come from the Babylonian libraries "Akkadian" and "Sumerian" are contrasted with one another, Akkadian signifying the Semitic language originally spoken in Akkad or Northern Babylonia in opposition to Sumerian, the earlier language of the country.

But this applies only to Babylonia; we are not justified in assuming that the term "Akkadian" was recognized in Assyria, much less in the other countries of the ancient world. And I have now found conclusive proof that it was not the name adopted outside the circle of the Babylonian scribes. One of the tablets (No. 5) recently published in Hittite Texts in the Cuneiform character from tablets in the British Museum describes the dedication of an image of silver by the sankunnis or "High Priest" (a Hittite loan-word from the Assyrian sangu), and states that he has to repeat certain words "in the language of the city of Pabili", i.e. Babili or Babylon (ALU Pabili-li kissan memai). The words are Assyrian: ... akli lû-dâb, "may [the work] of the artificer be fortunate!" The name, consequently, by which the Assyrian language was known outside Babylonia in the fourteenth century before our era was "Babylonian".

A. H. SAYCE.

NOTE ON THE MEANING OF THE TERM المِثُونُ "THE HUNDREDS" AS APPLIED TO CERTAIN CHAPTERS OF THE KORAN

In the year 1864 Professor Nöldeke published in the Zeitschrift der deutschen morgenländischen Gesellschaft, vol. xviii, p. 236, some verses by the poet Abu-l-Aswad ad-Du'alī on the murder of the Caliph 'Alī, which include the following two couplets:—

"Ye have slain the best of all those who ride camels and break them in, of all those who sail in ships, of all those who wear sandals and cut them to measure, of all those who recite the $Math\bar{a}n\bar{\imath}$ and the Hundreds."

These verses appear also in Mas'ūdī, *Murūj adh-Dhahab*, ed. Barbier de Meynard, vol. iv, p. 436, in Ṭabarī, i, 3467, and in Ibn al-Athīr, *Kāmil*, ed. Tornberg, vol. iii, p. 331.

What is meant by the Hundreds? Professor Nöldeke suggests, in a foot-note, that we should read "the Perspicuous", i.e. the Koran. This view may appear to be supported by the text of Mas'ūdī, which has (if the editor has read the manuscript correctly), and hence it is not surprising that the editors of Tabarī have adopted Professor Nöldeke's emendation. But the evidence of the manuscripts is decidedly in favour of "elicia", and that this is the correct reading seems to me to be conclusively proved by a passage in Tabarī's Commentary on the Koran (edition of A.H. 1321), vol. i, p. 346 seq.

وامّا المئون فهى ماكان من سور القرآن عدد آيه مائة آية او تزيد عليها شيئا او تنقص منها شيئا يسيرا

i.e. the Hundreds is a name given to those chapters of the Koran which contain about 100 verses. That the term Mathānī refers to certain parts of the Koran is generally admitted, though there is great difference of opinion as to which passages are included under it. In mediaeval times the chapters of the Koran were divided into four categories, namely, (1) المُقُونَ (2) المَقُونَ (3), (3), and (4)

—see, for example, Lane's Lexicon, s.v. and but it may be doubted whether this fourfold division is as old as the first century of the Hijrah. In the verse of Abu-l-Aswad "the Hundreds" probably include all the longer chapters and the Mathānī all the shorter chapters.

A. A. BEVAN.

A MISPRINT IN THE BIBLIOTHECA INDICA EDITION OF THE AKBARNAMA AND THE MUNTAKHAB-AL-TAYARIKH

An unfortunate misprint, which misled the late Mr. Vincent Smith in his admirable book, Akbar, the Great Mogul (pp. 110, 453), occurs in the Bibliotheca Indica edition (text) of the Akbarnāma, and in the corresponding passage (ii, 139) of the same edition of the text of Badāonī's Muntakhab-al-Tavārīkh. I cannot give the exact reference to the passage in the Akbarnāma, for I have not my copy with me, and have only notes to refer to, but I believe that it will be found on p. 4 of vol. iii.

Akbar, after leaving Ajmer on his way to Gujarāt in 1572, is made to march to $N\bar{a}gaur$, near which place he hears the news of the birth at Ajmer of his son Dāniyāl. Now, no JRAS. OCTOBER 1921.

commander in his senses would march nearly 80 miles in a north-easterly direction when his objective lay to the southeast of him. The place, therefore, at which Akbar heard the news of his son's birth must have been Bāgor (25° 22′ N. and 74° 23′ E.), the pargana town in the Udaipūr State (Imperial Gazetteer of India, vi, 193).

That this is so is proved by the account of the continuation of his march, according to which his next stage was "the neighbourhood of Amet". The distance, in a straight line, from Nāgaur to Amet is 136 miles, a distance which Akbar never covered in one day, even during his wonderful ride from Fathpūr-Sīkrī to Aḥmadābād in August, 1573. The distance from Bāgor to Amet is 28 miles, a reasonable day's march.

The difference between Nāgaur (أباكور) and Bāgor (باكور) in the Persian script is but slight, consisting in the change of the position of one dot, and nothing would be more natural than for a copyist, ignorant, like most of his class, of geography, encountering the comparatively unfamiliar name of the jump to the conclusion that there must have been

some mistake, and to substitute the name of the well-known town if; but it is incumbent on all editing or using works in the Persian script to follow geographical details on

a map, if absurdities are to be avoided.

There is another misprint in Badāonī (text, ii, 140), where Akbar's next halt after "Nāgaur" is given as Merṭha, so

that he appears to be turning in his tracks. "Mertha" should, of course, be "Amet".

"Nāgaur" occurs for "Bāgor" in the corresponding passage (p. 293) of the very unsatisfactory Lucknow edition of the Tahnat is Albarā (A. H. 1292), and the same mistake

of the <u>Tabaqāt-i-Akbarī</u> (A.H. 1292), and the same mistake occurs on **p**. 109 of the inaccurate monograph on Akbar in the *Rulers of India* series, but here one naturally does not look for scholarship.

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The Bombay edition of Firishta (text, 1832) is non-committal with ("Māgaur" or "Māgor", i, 491). This otherwise admirable edition is entirely untrustworthy where proper names are concerned.

All who are interested in Indian history must agree with Mr. Vincent Smith (Akbur, p. 462) that a new and scholarly translation of *Firishta*, adequately annotated and indexed, is much to be desired.

T. W. HAIG.

TEHRAN.
11th June, 1921.

"BHASA"

Lack of leisure makes it impossible for me to discuss in detail the various interesting points raised by Mr. A. Banerji-Sastri in his paper "The Plays of Bhāsa" in the July number of this Journal. I will only say that his arguments are wholly based on petitiones principii and have no cogency, for the following reasons, among others:—

- (1) The "reformation" in the preludes of plays ascribed by him to Bhāsa is badly in need of evidence, and seems to be quite irrelevant. In the Trivandrum plays, after an introductory $n\bar{a}nd\bar{\imath}$, which is not given in the MSS., and probably might be varied at the discretion of the $s\bar{\imath}tradh\bar{\imath}ra$ (stage-manager), the latter appears and begins the prelude, usually though not always with a preliminary benediction, after which comes the prose. In the classical dramas the $n\bar{\imath}nd\bar{\imath}$ is given in full; then the $s\bar{\imath}tradh\bar{\imath}ra$ enters and begins the prelude with prose.\(^1\) In either case the play is begun by the $s\bar{\imath}tradh\bar{\imath}ra$. It is possible that this arrangement was introduced by the real Bhāsa, as is suggested by Bāṇa's verse; but to argue
- ¹ The sthāpaka whom Mr. Banerji-Sastri drags in by the hair of his head is quite irrelevant. The Daśarāpaka (iii, 2) tells us that he should not appear until the sātradhāra has left the stage after the conclusion of the prelude; and his place here is marked in some plays by the stage-direction sthāpanā.

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that the Trivandrum plays are his works because something of the kind is found in them is a bold begging of the question.

- (2) It is more natural to take $r\bar{a}ja$ -sinha in the Bharata-vākya as a proper name than as a mere epithet.¹ The variants are thus much more easily explained.
- (3) The comparison of Prakrits is very instructive, but its lessons are not what Mr. Banerji-Sastri supposes them to be. It really tells us nothing about the relative dates of Pseudo-Bhāsa and classical authors. We have no first-hand knowledge of these Prakrits; we know only the forms that editors and scribes have imposed upon the texts. Undoubtedly the plays of Pseudo-Bhāsa contain many archaic forms which are not found in ordinary recensions of classical texts; but we cannot say that the latter never contained them, for grammarians have been working their sweet will upon the texts for many centuries. In the North they have partly succeeded in covering up their trails; but in the South we can more easily trace the successions of their malefic activities. And we can see that the use of the Prakrits in the South is based upon traditions which differ considerably from those now prevalent in the North,2 and probably are older in ultimate origin. But to argue that the plays of Pseudo-Bhāsa, of which the MSS. are characterized by the former, must be works of an author earlier than (say) Kālidāsa, whose MSS. usually show the features of the latter, is a reckless petitio principii. Mr. Banerji-Sastri and the other gentlemen who follow the same line of thought overlook the fact that the plays of Pseudo-Bhāsa are not peculiar in their Prakrit. To take only a few instances, the Subhadrā-dhanañjaya published in the Trivandrum Series shows a number of archaic forms seldom or never found in the printed texts and MSS. of Kālidāsa, but actually occurring in the Pseudo-Bhāsa,

¹ Mr. Banerji-Sastri has fathered on me a misspelling "Teramāran", of which I must repudiate the paternity.

² I use the word "North" in a general sense, without prejudice to the distinction into Eastern and Western Schools (JRAS. 1921, p. 425).

e.g. ayya and ayyaütta (== vulgo ajia and ajjaütta), pay jāulā (Skt. paryākulā), ahake (Skt. aham), tuvam (Skt. tvum), karia (Skt. krtvā), amhāum (Skt. asmākam), and the particle āma; and the Pradyumnābhyudaya and Tapatī-samvarana in the same series between them contain all these forms. Will Mr. Banerji-Sastri therefore argue that Kulašēkhara Varman and Ravi Varman are earlier than Kālidāsa?

It is illuminating to compare the text of the Nāgānanda as published in the Trivandrum Series with a typical Northern edition such as that of Jīvānanda published at Calcutta in 1886. We find in T. ed. ayya, uyyāṇa, etc. = C. ed. ajja, ujjāna, etc.; T. ed. tuvam (pp. 24, 71, 82 f., etc., side by side with tumam) = C. ed. tumam always; T. ed. kissa (p. 66) = C. ed. $k\bar{\imath}sa$, and on the other hand, T. ed. $k\bar{\imath}sa$ (p. 71) = C. ed. kim and T. ed. $k\bar{\imath}sa$ (p. 88) = C. ed. $k\bar{\imath}sa$; T. ed. karia (pp. 88, 111, 148, 151, 275) == C. ed. karia, but also T. ed. karia (pp. 146, 254) = C. ed. kadua; T. ed. gacchia (p. 147) = C. ed. gadua; T. ed. tava (p. 202) = C. ed. te. These facts, and a great many others, show clearly that this play has had the usual fate of Indian books; many alterations have been made in both the Northern and the Southern recensions, but the latter on the whole has preserved more ancient forms -forms quite as archaic as any that appear in Pseudo-Bhāsa. But the Nāgānanda ascribes itself to Harşadēva, and is certainly not earlier than the seventh century. much for the value of Mr. Banerji-Sastri's linguistic tests of date.

The rest of his arguments are even more nugatory, and need not be discussed.

L. D. BARNETT.

NOTICES OF BOOKS

SANKALPA-SURYÓDAYA, OR THE DAWN OF THE DIVINE WILL, OF SRI VEDANTA DESIKA. With English translation by K. Narayanacharya, B.A., and D. Raghunathaswamy Iyengar, under the supervision of Sriman Vidyabhushana A. Govindacharya. Vol. i, Acts 1-v; 12mo. pp. iv, ii, 189, xxxviii, 317, 1. Srirangam: Sri Vani Vilas Press, 1917.

The Sankalpa-sūryōdaya belongs to a rare type of Sanskrit literature, the allegorical diama. Among the interesting fragments of plays discovered by the Prussian Expedition to Turfan and edited by Prcfessor Lüders (Berlin, 1911), which are the oldest specimens of Sanskrit plays extant, there are morsels of a work of this kind, in which the triumph of Buddhist morals and religious doctrine is allegorically presented in dramatic form. Oddly enough no other play of this class has survived from the date of the Turfan fragments to about 1200, when Kṛṣṇa Miśra composed his Prabōdhacandrödaya in glorification of Vedantic monism. The latter work made a hit (it was even rendered into Persian in л.н. 1073 by Banvālī Das, called Valī); and among the imitations which it called forth the most notable is the Sankalpasūryōdaya, in which Venkaṭa-nātha, known as the Vēdāntadēśika par excellence, set himself to represent in the same manner the triumph of Rāmānuja's Viśistādvaita doctrine. Though, this drama has previously been published (at Conjevaram in 1883 and 1904), the present volume embodies the first attempt to present the text with an English rendering, and therefore deserves a welcome. The English version is in parts very free, and sometimes is more of a paraphrase than a translation, but it is generally true to the sense and helpful to readers who are not familiar with the author's subtleties of idiom. Naturally dramas of this kind cannot be expected to

possess the highest dramatic qualities, such as vigour of action and liveliness of characterization; their appeal is literary and intellectual. The Sankalpa-sūryōdaya is no exception to this rule. But it is well worth reading, and we shall be glad to have the concluding volume in due course.

L. D. B.

DAS ŚRAUTA-SŪTRA DES ĀPASTAMBA. Aus dem Sanskrit übersetzt von Dr. W. CALAND. 1–7 Buch. (Quellen der Religions-Geschichte. Gruppe 7.) 8vo. pp. 270. Göttingen and Leipzig, 1921.

With the exception of the Vaitāna-sūtra, a work of only secondary importance in its class, this is the first of the Śrauta-sūtras that has been translated; and Professor Caland, than whom no Western scholar is more profoundly versed in the intricacies of orthodox Hindu ritualism, has performed his peculiarly difficult task with notable skill and success. The Śrauta-sūtras, as is well known, are summaries of the systems of Vedic ritual, based mainly on the Brāhmanas 1: hence the proper understanding of a Śrauta-sūtra requires at almost every step reference to the Brāhmana upon which it is based, and not seldom also to other sources, when, as is occasionally the case with Apastamba, the author of the Sūtra prefers the practice of another school to that prescribed in his own Brāhmaṇa, or allows both.2 To investigate these intricate connexions and interpret the often obscure text of the Sūtras, as Dr. Caland has done in his translation and in the pithy and illuminative notes which accompany it, is

¹ In his introduction Professor Caland describes them as being "properly only excerpts from the Brāhmaṇas". This is slightly misleading if it be taken to mean that their rules are wholly derived from Brāhmaṇas, for sometimes they apparently come from elsewhere, as, e.g. Āp.Ś.-s. IV, 3, 1 (p. 106 of the present work), which is drawn from an unknown source.

² An example of the last case is Āp.Ś.-s. I, 14, 8b: "one who has not already offered a sōma-sacrifice must not offer Samnāyya—or he may". Here the prohibition is derived from the Taittirīya Samhitā II, v. 8, 1; and Āpastamba is a Taittirīya.

a task of extraordinary difficulty, and the manner in which he has accomplished it calls for our unstinted admiration and gratitude, the more so as the subject, though full of interest to students of comparative roligion, is not at first sight an attractive one. Orthodox Hindu rituals lack almost all elements of beauty, dignity, and impressiveness, such as may be found in the worship of Christian, Jewish, and Moslem communities. The idea of a liturgy, a congregational service of prayer and praise, is almost unknown in them. Immensely intricate in their details, they are usually crude and puerile, sometimes even revolting, in their symbolism. All the more honour, therefore, is due to Dr. Caland for his devoted labours in this unlovely field; and we sincerely hope that we may soon see his work completed by the translation of the remaining books, with an index.

L. D. B.

MĀNAVA ŚRAUTA-SŪTRA: CAYANA. (Opbouw van het Hoogaltaar naar de Overlevering der Mānavas.) [Edited by] J. M. VAN GELDER. 4to. pp. xx, 22. Leiden, Leipzig printed, 1921.

Professor Caland is not only a master of the lore of the ancient Brahmanic rituals, but he has also communicated his enthusiasm and sound critical method to a band of younger scholars. Miss Van Gelder is apparently one of the latest recruits of this company, and her inaugural dissertation proves her to be a worthy disciple of her Guru. The Cayana, or ritual for the construction of the chief altar, belongs to the Mānava-śrauta-sūtra, of which Dr. Knauer has published books 1–5 (Petrograd, 1900–3); and it forms the fifth vibhāga of that corpus, either by itself, according to some MSS., or in combination with the Vājapēya and Prāyaścitta, according to others. Though tedious and often obscure, like the rest of the ritual literature, the Cayana has a fair amount of interest for students of comparative religion and

early Sanskrit; and Miss Van Gelder would have increased her claims to our gratitude if she had appended to her excellent edition an *index verborum*.

L. D. B.

The Vaiçesika System, described with the help of the oldest texts. By Dr. B. Faddegon. (Verhandelingen der Koninklijke Akademie van Wetenschappen te Amsterdam. Afdeeling Letterkunde. Nieuwe Reeks. Deel xviii, No. 2.) $10\frac{1}{4} \times 7\frac{1}{4}$, pp. 614. Amsterdam, 1918.

The Vaiçēsika philosophy has come by its own at last, and has found a thoroughly competent expositor in Dr. Faddegon, who discusses in this volume the study of Indian philosophy in Europe (1, i), the Vaiçēsika texts (1, ii), the Nyāya-sūtra and its relation to the Vaiçēṣika (1, iii), sources of information as to other schools (I, iv), general questions of metaphysics (II, i), physics (II, ii), mathematical notions (II, iii), psychology (II, iv), trustworthy sources of knowledge (II, v), and ethics and theology (II, vi), followed by copious translations from Crīdhara's Nyāya-kandalī (III), and "material for reference", including bibliography 1 and analyses of the chief texts (IV). Considerations of space forbid us to discuss the many interesting topics of which Dr. Faddegon treats in this monumental work, and to bestow more than a few words to express our admiration for the orderly method and sound scholarship by which it is marked. Praise is due also to him for the courage which inspired him to write in English, and to write it generally well, in spite of occasional lapses into foreign idiom, frequent superfluity of commas, and a considerable crop of minor misprints.

L. D. B.

¹ In this list we miss the "Vaiseṣika Philosophy according to the Daśapadārthaśāstra" of Mr. Ui published as vol. xxiv of the Oriental Translation of the Asiatic Society in 1917. As the Chinese translation of the D. was made in A.D. 648, the latter has an important bearing on the subject of the early Vaiçēṣika.

WILLIAM BOLTS: A DUTCH ADVENTURER UNDER JOHN COMPANY. By N. L. HALLWARD, M.A. $9\frac{1}{4} \times 5\frac{3}{4}$, pp. viii, 210. Cambridge University Press, 1920.

The long-delayed life of the able and unscrupulous adventurer, William Bolts, will be welcomed by students of Anglo-Indian history. But their pleasure in Mr. Hallward's clear and scholarly account of Bolts and his methods will be less keen when they find that there is no clue throughout the volume to the provenance of the material "hitherto not available or not easily accessible" on which the narrative is based. The numerous quotations elucidating the text are presumably taken, for the most part, from the Manuscript Records of the East India Company, some of them, possibly, from the French Archives, but no hint of the whereabouts of the originals appears either in the preface or in the foot-notes. There is, moreover, neither a bibliography nor an index, for the meagre list of persons at the end of the volume is valueless to the student desirous of learning the system of inland trade in India in the eighteenth century. It is regrettable that there should be such defects in so excellent a monograph, for the author has handled his subject with skill and knowledge, and leaves a clear impression on the mind of the reader of Bolts and his contemporaries in Bengal, their intrigues and their conduct towards their employers.

The second part of the volume is treated less minutely, since Bolts, as a servant of the Empress of Austria, hardly comes within the title of the book. Still, as Mr. Hallward describes the methods taken in Bombay to thwart the design of an Austrian settlement in India, and gives an account of the relations between Bolts and the Chevalier de St. Lubin at Poona, some notice of the adventurer's reception on his return to Bengal in September, 1779 (as recorded in Bengal Public Consultations, India Office Records), and of his protest addressed to the Select Committee at Madras in April, 1780 (Madras Select Committee Consultations), might have been

expected, together with an allusion to the temporary settlement made under his direction at one of the Nicobar Islands.

R. C. T.

MAKRIZΗDESCRIPTION HISTORIQUE ET TOPOGRAPHIQUE DE L'ÉGYPTE. Traduit par M. PAUL CASANOVA. 4me partie 1er fascicule. $14 \times 10\frac{1}{2}$, xii + 144 pp. Le Caire: Institut Français, 1920.

Monsieur Paul Casanova has brought out, after an interval of years, another fascicule of his French translation of the Arabic chronicle of Maķrîzî, under the auspices of the Ministère de l'Instruction Publique, published at Cairo, 1920.

In offering any criticism on the translation so faithfully rendered by Monsieur Casanova, one cannot do better than quote the latter's own words, viz.: "Je dois dire que je me suis fait une loi, dans ma traduction, d'une scrupuleuse probité scientifique. J'ai résisté à la tentation de cacher sous des phrases plus ou moins vague mon incompréhension de certains passages, et au contraire je l'ai soulignée en proposant des solutions qui n'étaient pas toujours heureuses."

His plan of printing in the text in Arabic technical and obscure words will commend itself to the student. He has, moreover, provided copious footnotes on words requiring special comment, and historical references have been unstintingly given throughout. Makrîzî was born A.H. 766 (A.D. 1364), and died A.H. 845 (A.D. 1442).

The present volume deals with the reigns of the Fatimide Khalifes, and with the founding and growth of Cairo; it is a storehouse of details concerning the life and manners of the Mussulman world, during the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth centuries. A short account is given of the lives of the Fatimide Khalifes. The founders of this dynasty had travelled from Arabia to Egypt in search of science, "le sentier des meilleurs." The first Khalife, 'Oubeïd Allah, was a typical Mussulman ruler of their great days, he underwent many persecutions prompted by Baghdad and Damascus, and was delivered with his son

from a Syrian prison by a victorious soldier, Aboû 'Abd Allah, who championed his cause and proclaimed him as the Mahdi (A.H. 297).

'Oubeid Allah, when he had consolidated his power, shook himself free of his benefactor and caused Aboû 'Abd Allah and his brother to be murdered. He died aged 63, having been Khalife for twenty-four years, leaving to his descendants the task of conquering Egypt (A.H. 322). They were of widely different types; his son was a cruel and effeminate ruler, who organized massacres of defenceless towns, but never put a leg across a horse, even for hunting, nor troubled himself to conduct the services in the mosques which were expected from his sacred office. Khalife Mansour, his son, was famous for eloquence, and for the devotion with which he could improvise the service of the Khoutbat "séance tenante".

Khalife Mou'izz, the first Fatimide sovereign of Egypt, prided himself on the austerity of his life and his assiduity in the public service. He sent for his sheikhs one cold winter's day to his palace, where he sat in a lined and wadded robe (djoubbat), with open doors leading to his libraries, with an inkstand and some state papers before him. He gave them a long address on the vanity of luxury and pleasure, and exhorted them to lead a simple and laborious life like his own; to have one wife only and to pay her all respect; and promised that if they would devote themselves to public duty as he did, Allah would give them the sovereignty of the West, which they already had of the East. Mansour husbanded all his resources to create an army for the conquest of Egypt; he tried to impose a new tax, but when his sheikhs protested that their swords were at his service East and West, but that they would never stoop to pay a tax only fit to be levied on infidels, he rose in his stirrups and said that it was just the answer he wanted, he only meant to try their mettle.

His armies were victorious, and he celebrated his victory by laying on a magnificent scale the foundations of Cairo. He was wise, just, and generous, and had a passion for astronomy; when he died (A.H. 365), still in the prime of life, his rule was acknowledged in the Maghrib, throughout Egypt and Syria, and in Mecca and Medina.

The reign of his grandson, Adh Dhâhir, a lover of music and art and a collector of jewels, was marked by recurrent famine and sickness, and riots among the black slaves. A treaty (A.H. 418) was made with the Greek Emperor of Constantinople, who re-established a mosque there in return for the reopening of a church in Jerusalem and permission for the Christians forcibly converted to Islam to return to their own faith.

Khalife Moustansir, who succeeded at 7 years of age, suffered the extreme buffetings of fortune during his long reign of sixty years. He extended his rule over Baghdad and Aleppo, but Egypt was in great misery with famine and sickness; in the universal confusion the lowest of the people became viziers and Kâdîs, and their unhappy ruler, imprisoned apparently in his own palace, "vivait assis sur un tapis, privé de nourriture et dans l'impossibilité de s'en procurer; mais une femme de famille noble lui faisait l'aumone de pain émietté, et il ne mangeait qu'une fois par jour." The dynasty was finally swept away by the conquests of Ṣalâlı ad dîn, having lasted for 272 years.

Makrîzî then turns back to give a detailed account of the founding of Cairo, and the abandonment of the former city of Miṣr, which had become a perfect pest-house. The original design of the Kâïd Djauhar, who started to build Cairo for his master Khalife Al Mou'izz, was to have two fine palaces for the Khalife and his harem, with gardens, walls, and gates which might later on be fortified as a military post, but there was no thought of founding a centre of commerce. Later in the bad days of famine, in the Khalifate of Moustansir, the people were encouraged to build their own houses from the ruins of Foustât-Miṣr, and gradually a great city arose with mosques, schools, and bazaars, second only to Baghdad, "the market of the world." A minute account of these gates, walls, and roads, and of the education in the schools, fills the

remainder of the volume, invaluable data for the topography of Cairo, which may be compared with the account given in the chronicles of Ibn Iyâs, some four centuries later under the Mameluke Sultans.

Makrîzî becomce eloquent both on the miseries and the beauties of Cairo—the want of water, the stench and dust in the narrow stifling streets, the sickness and intolerable taxation—but he quotes the poets when he wants to show us the charm and fragrance of the gardens, where the narcissus waits upon the rose:—

"Ne vois-tu pas que la rose est assise, et que le narcisse est debout pour la servir."

He is eloquent about the beauty and variety of the birds, and he pities the man who should quit these shades and ponds for the arid rocks of Syria—the gazelles and antelopes for the sheep and mares of Damascus.

Space fails us to quote the marvellous descriptions of the banquets, and how the great men, headed by the Sultan, come out of the mosque on the last hour of the long fast to throw themselves upon their viands. A grotesque joke closes this chapter; a prisoner long in captivity was promised his freedom if he could eat at one sitting the whole of a roasted calf. He survived the ordeal and returned home, and the chronicler adds for our full satisfaction the words of the narrator: "Je l'ai vu, mangeant au banquet."

W. H. SALMON.

GLOSSAIRE DAȚÎNOIS. Par LE COMTE DE LANDBERG. Vol. I (Alif to Dāl). Being part of a dictionary of the dialects spoken in Dathina, Southern Arabia. $9\frac{1}{4} \times 6$, xi + 1038 pp., 1 plate. Leide: E. J. Brill, 1920.

The author tells us that a careful study of Carl Reinhardt's grammar of the dialect in 'Omān and Zanzibar, with his native friends in Ḥadramout and Daṭînah, has given him a fairly accurate idea of the common and different features of these

dialects. The Count has selected from Reinhardt's work the phrases and words which are also current in the Datînois dialect for his glossary, and has added other Arabic words which he considered important. He tells us that it was impossible in this case to localize the use of a word, so ably done by Marçais in his Glosśaire de TAT, as this requires more facilities of communication than the author possessed, not having a "burak" at his disposal to carry him over the country in a few weeks and enable him to make a "linguistic atlas" like Bergsträsser's Sprachtallas.

Many a student will echo the sentiments expressed in the Count's preface, where he laments the harm that the great war has done to science and research, and the present great expense of publishing which prevents so much knowledge from being given to the world. We are glad that in this case all the hard work involved in the Glossaire Datinois has not been in vain and that it was published last year.

W. H. SALMON.

Das Alte Ægypten. Von A. Wiedemann. $7\frac{1}{4} \times 5$, xv, 446 pp., 78 illustrations (15 plates).

Babylonien und Assyrien. Von Bruno Meissner. Band I, $7\frac{1}{4}\times 5$, 466 pp., 223 illustrations (96 plates); coloured map. Heidelberg: Carl Winters Buchhandlung, 1920.

It is now over ten years since Dr. Willy Foy, the Director of the Ethnological Museum at Cologne, projected a series of books, under the title of the Ethnologische Bibliothek, which should cover the whole history of human culture. Not confining itself to the civilized and semi-civilized peoples, but also embracing those races whom we call "savages"—for even the lowest savages are by no means in a state of nature—they have all developed some kind of culture to distinguish them from the irrational animals. A number of specialists were enlisted in the task, but, naturally, such an

ambitious programme requires time and patience; and it is not surprising that nothing appeared with the exception of a preliminary treatise, Methode der Ethnologie, by Dr. F. Graebner (Heidelberg, 1911). The two works which are the subject of this notice are the second and third of the series, and they are an excellent introduction, for they deal with the important and primary civilizations of Egypt and Chaldea, in the capable hands of Professor A. Wiedemann and Dr. Bruno Meissner.

To compress all that is known of Ancient Egypt into one small volume of 450 pages is no easy task, and Professor Wiedemann has necessarily been obliged to limit himself to bare outlines, although his full references on every page will enable the eager student to follow up any particular point in which he may be interested. A less experienced writer would have felt a difficulty in preserving the balance between the various subjects treated; more especially in regard to Egypt, which to most people seems confined to two departments only, viz. religion and sepulture. Professor Wiedemann summarizes religion in six pages and He remembers that the mummification in fourteen. civilization of the Nile Valley is his theme; and therefore he deals primarily with the culture of the Ancient Egyptians, their ethnology, their manners and customs, their art and their industries, their literature and their sciences. Nevertheless, in spite of all this compression, a clear picture is conveyed to the general reader, and there are numbers of references to books and journals outside the strict field of Egyptology, keeping in mind the fact that the Nile civilization was not an isolated phenomenon, but that it presents points of contact and comparison with many other divisions of mankind. The illustrations are not elaborate. but they are sufficient for the purpose, and there is an excellent index.

Dr. Meissner confesses that he had long had the wish to publish a comprehensive survey of Babylonian civilization, JRAS, OCTOBER 1921 39

but he was always deterred by the feeling that there were serious gaps in our knowledge, and these gaps were only slowly being filled up. As, however, he has been compelled to devote two thick volumes to a summary of what is already known, there would seem to be ample groundwork for the study. The present volume deals with the material culture of the Babylonians and Assyrians. The second will be devoted to their psychical developments, and detail their religion, their philosophy, their science, and their superstition. The work opens with a brief, but informing, description of Mesopotamia, its ancient inhabitants, and their history. Then we are told of the court, the army, and the official organization. Law, agriculture, handicraft, art, and commerce pass under review, and we have a sketch of Chaldean society, concluding with an outline of the life-history of a typical Babylonian from the cradle to the grave. It is needless to say that the many illustrations are well chosen, but, what is more remarkable in these difficult times, they are well and clearly printed; and the map is a triumph of cartography.

E. J. PILCHER.

The Tomb of Antefoker, Vizier of Sesostris I, and his Wife, Senet. (The Theban Tombs Series: Second Memoir.) By N. de Garis Davies, M.A., with a chapter by Alan H. Gardiner, D.Litt. Illustrated by 6 plates in colour by Nina de G. Davies, and by 42 plates in line and collotype. Egypt Exploration Society. 10 × 13. London: George Allen & Unwin, 1920.

The tombs and mortuary chapels of the great Theban nobles are cut out of the limestone hillsides on the west bank of the Nile, over against the city which stood upon the east bank. The earliest of these date from Dynasty XII (roughly 2000 B.C.), but the great majority belong to Dynasty XVIII (about 1550 to 1350 B.C.), while a considerable number are of later periods. Halls and corridors are hewn out of the rock

to form mortuary chapels or temples, and the walis are sculptured or painted with delightful scenes from the daily life of the Egyptian grandees who were buried in the sepulchres beneath them. The actual tomb is usually entered by way of a shaft or sloping passage leading from one of the upper chambers; but the burials have been ransacked and plundered ages ago. In the necropolis there are more than 250 of these chapels now open to the public, and no such mass of material for a study of ancient arts, crafts, manners, and customs is to be found elsewhere in the world.

The present writer, while he was in charge of the antiquities of Upper Egypt, took various steps for the preservation of these wonderful monuments, for his predecessors had been obliged to neglect them. owing to the number of the other calls upon their time and energies. Iron doors were affixed to the entrances, enclosing walls were erected around the main groups, watchmen were put in charge, and the chapels were numbered and catalogued. Much of the credit for the work of preservation and restoration is due to Mr. Robert Mond who not only devoted a good many months to strenuous personal labour in the necropolis, but also gave sums of money to this most worthy object. To Dr. Alan Gardiner the thanks of the archeological world are also due; for he took over the present writer's incomplete catalogue of these tombs, and added greatly to it, working it up into the very excellent form in which it was published a few years ago.1 And now he has been the inspiration behind the two handsome volumes which form the first of a contemplated series of publications dealing with these splendid monuments of the past.

The first volume dealt with the tomb of Amenemhet, No. 82, and consisted of facsimile copies of the paintings, made in line and colour by Mrs. de Garis Davies, with about 130 pages of text by Dr. Gardiner himself. The second

¹ A Topographical Catalogue of the Private Tombs of Thebes, by Alan H. Gardiner and Arthur Weigall.

volume, which has just been published, is concerned with the tomb of Antefoker and his wife Senet, No. 60, and gives facsimile line drawings by Mr. de Garis Davies, some thirty pages of explanatory text by the same scholar, a short chapter on the graffiti by Dr. Gardiner, and some paintings in colour by Mrs. Davies.

These publications are of immense importance and value, for were these tomb-chapels now to be destroyed—as is always possible—a full record of their contents would be to hand.

The tomb of Antefoker and his wife is particularly interesting, for it dates from the reign of Sesostris I, 1970-1935 B.C., and is the only mortuary chapel of this early date now preserved in anything like its original condition in the necropolis. It was fitted with an iron door by the present writer at the expense of a native gentleman, Alexander Bey Ebaid of Keneh, in 1907, but until that date it had stood open and unprotected on the bare hillside of Shêkh abd'-el Kurneh. Its wall-paintings served as a model for those of the later chapels, and in ancient times it was one of the particular places to be visited by the curious, as is evidenced by the many graffiti scribbled upon the walls. The paintings include harvesting scenes and other pictures of the work upon the estate, fishing and hunting expeditions, the preparation of food, a very complete representation of the funeral ceremonies, sacred dances and musical performances, and so forth.

The only important fault which is to be found with this excellent and useful volume is that there are no adequate key-plates to the reproductions of these paintings. The scenes in this tomb extend along the walls of the main passage, which is some sixty feet in length; and these scenes are here reproduced in short sections, reduced to varying scales, and cut off so as to fit the page or double page of the volume. Key-plates on a single reduced scale are therefore required to link these sections together, and to show at a glance some twenty or thirty feet of the wall, for without such aids

the work of hunting up a particular scene or inscription is rather a nuisance. For instance, an inscription referring to the making of a fire with green firewood is translated on p. 15 of the text, and plate xii is given as the reference; but this plate shows no sign of the inscription, and, at last, one finds that this particular scene, with its accompanying legend, overlaps on to another plate four pages back. Moreover, without these key-plates the student at home can have no idea of what the paintings really look like, nor can he visualize how they are arranged.

Another mir or criticism must be made, though the present reviewer will perhaps be thought captious in calling attention to it. In these wall-paintings the Egyptians were in the habit of inscribing fragments of conversation against the figures represented, as though to give added life to the scenes and an air of reality. These brief snatches of the workmen's or servants' chatter often have a rather jocular strain; and it is clear that their object is to indicate the good-feeling existing amongst the deceased noble's employees. Egyptologists, in endeavouring to render these difficult and often obscure phrases into English, have tried to catch the spirit of the originals by using somewhat slang words, but the result has always been extremely unconvincing. Mr. Davies makes the same mistake. In the case of one man who tells another to attend to his cooking, the reply is given thus: "I am close to it and won't budge," the actual translation being: "I am at it (lit. near it); (I am) not going away." In another case a workman is jocularly scolding a boy for eating too much; and Mr. Davies gives us the remark in the following unreal language: "Thou eatest more than a king's serf when ploughing! Why, you are chock-full!" The last word of this sentence is to be translated "gorged", or "choked", or "replete"; but "chock full", like the word "budge", is out of place in this connexion, and does not in the least convey the spirit of the original.

Mr. Davies's explanatory text is always scholarly and

illuminating, and here and there one catches glimpses of his fine literary style, which can never be altogether suppressed in his scientific work, though he seems to be peculiarly shy of it. The last paragraph of the text is a very beautiful piece of writing, and one cannot help wishing that he could be persuaded to give us one day a literary essay or two in regard to the subject of Egyptology, which his scientific work has done so much to advance.

ARTHUR WEIGALL.

Inscriptions grecques et latines des tombeaux des rois ou syringes à Thèbes. By Jules Baillet. Premier fascicule (Mémoires publiés par les membres de L'Institut Français d'Archéologie Orientale du Caire. Tome xlii). Large 4to, 219 pp., 53 pls. Cairo, 1920.

The Pharaohs of Egypt, during the years between 1550 and 1100 B.C., were buried in sepulchres cut into the cliffs and hillsides of what is now called the Valley of the Tombs of the Kings, a desolate place concealed behind the mighty ramparts of rock which form the background of the great Theban necropolis, over against the modern town of Luxor. These sepulchres consist of long passages and flights of steps leading down to halls and chambers all hewn out of the solid rock, the walls being covered for the most part with hieroglyphic inscriptions and religious scenes; and after some of these tombs (those which were not entirely concealed) had been robbed of their royal contents at the time when the Pharaonic power was waning, they stood open and empty, to be visited by the awed tourists of ancient days, both Egyptian and foreign. In the time of Strabo some forty sepulchres were known, though this number probably included tombs in other localities; and Diodorus speaks of seventeen in his day.

As in modern times, the ancient sightseers used to visit first the main necropolis, paying special attention to the two

Colossi which stand at its edge, one being the famous vocal Memnon; and they then made their way over or around the cliffs to this royal valley, and descended by torchlight into the deserted sepulchres, which the Greeks called syringes or "tunnels". Upon the painted or sculptured walls of the corridors they were wont to scratch their names or scribble their comments, while the more religious-minded sometimes wrote brief prayers or recorded pious sentiments. Thus the walls of these great sepulchres at the present day are seen to be dotted over with short graffiti, mostly Greek, the majority being mere names without interest, but some having importance as illuminating the life of those times.

While the antiquities of Upper Egypt were under my care I often wondered when some painstaking archæologist would take the trouble to make a complete record of these scribbles, and I suggested more than once that some savant should undertake the work. At last Monsieur Jules Baillet has done it, and the first volume of his catalogue has recently been published.

Now, considering that the making of an exhaustive catalogue of these graffiti is a piece of work which has required great patience and skill, and which will be of considerable value, I suppose I shall be regarded as very ill-natured in stating that the volume is a typical example of that unpractical and extravagant kind of publication which is the bane of archæology. We have here about a thousand graffiti, scores of them consisting of but one word or name, and the remainder, with a few important exceptions, having from two to five words. In this catalogue, however, there are 219 very large pages of text printed on stout paper, and 53 plates; and the result is a great unwieldy volume, costing 80 francs, which few libraries and fewer individuals can afford to purchase, especially as it has only a paper cover, and requires to be bound to prevent it falling to pieces. The whole material might have been printed in a handy little ten-franc book, which any interested archæologist would have been glad to place

upon his shelves; but, as it is, libraries and private scholars will mostly have to strain their resources if they desire to buy it, and the practical man will feel that archæology is evidently a study meant for the fat years and not for the lean.

Who can possibly want pages and pages of text describing the exact height of the letters, the exact length of the words in centimetres, the exact position of the scribbles upon the walls, and so forth, when there are elaborate plates in the volume, giving photographs and facsimile copies as well? And, with paper at its present price, why should the text be spaced out so that only six or eight graffiti go to fill a large folio page, and there is more than three times as much blank margin and space on each page than there is print, if you measure it up? Why on earth should all this money be spent on elaborate publication when every penny is required for the preservation of antiquities, the excavation of new sites, and the making accessible of knowledge to the largest possible number of students?

The fact is that the antiquarian is often at heart still a dilettante; and when he has done a good piece of work. such as this, he likes to see it published in the grand manner. He likes to bring to you with both hands a magnificent tome, and to say: "Behold, my contribution to science!" does not trouble to think whether he is making his contribution accessible to the world; he does not look to the practical side; he has never asked himself in what manner he can most modestly issue the results of his labours so that knowledge in general may benefit at the least possible cost. Or, if he may be exonerated personally from grandiose considerations, as in the case of our present author, the institution he serves desires to make a fine show of its output, and to impress by the sheer bulk of its publications; nor does there seem to be any realization of the fact that large areas of expensive blank paper are to the student simply expensive blank paper.

In the volume under consideration there are no aids to study; and woe be to anyone who wants to look up any

particular graffito! It is the first instalment of a series, and it deals with the graffiti in only a few of the royal sepulchres; but if I were asked to state which tombs are here disposed of, and which remain for future publication, I should be inclined to reply that I really cannot be bothered to hunt through 219 pages to find out. There is neither an index nor even a table of contents of any kind whatsoever to help me. There is no attempt at the arrangement of the graffiti in a handy manner; there are only sporadic discussions or critical examinations of the inscriptions; and such helpful notes as there are seem to have been put in only when something tickled the author's fancy. The work, of course, does not pretend to be much more than a bare catalogue; but, this being so, one ought not to be asked to pay 80 francs for it in order that L'Institut Français d'Archéologie Orientale du Caire may maintain its reputation for turning out handsome volumes.

In other respects the work seems to be worthy of praise, and one is grateful to M. Baillet for his labours. So far as can be seen without close study it is accurate, though one may here and there question the author's interpretation. At any rate, we have now got the beginning of a corpus of these graffiti; and we can bring back to life in some measure these classical prototypes of the patrons of Messrs. Thomas Cook & Son.

It is interesting to notice that two of these, Dionysios and Poseidonax, hailed from Marseilles, the word being written both Μασσαλιήτης and Μασσαλιώτης; while some come from other distant places. There is an inscription stating that one Apollophanes of Lycopolis visited the tombs in the seventh year of Antoninus; another visitor records a date in the reign of Augustus; and there are a few other dates to be seen. There is the record of a certain Jasios, who says: "I have heard the Memnon speak, and I have seen the peculiarly excellent workmanship of these tombs, which is unutterable to us." A Roman official named Januarius states in Latin

that he came with his daughter Januarina, and that he "saw and marvelled"; and he says "Valete omnes". A curious Christian prayer is: "O God Almighty, and Saint Kollouthos, and Saint Father-Patermouthis, and Saint Father-Ammonios the Anchorite, intercede with God that He may grant life to Artemidora with Paphnuce for a little time . . ." And the following is rather amusing: "I, Philastrios the Alexandrian, who have come to Thebes, and who have seen with my eyes the Colossi, and the work of these tombs of astounding horror $(\mu \dot{\nu} \sigma \sigma s)$, have spent a delightful $(\ddot{\delta} \lambda \beta \iota \sigma s)$ day." $M\dot{\nu} \sigma s$ is just the right word for the atmosphere of these tombs in which M. Baillet has performed his long and praiseworthy task.

ARTHUR WEIGALL.

Asoka, the Buddhist Emperor of India. By Vincent A. Smith. Third Edition. $7\frac{1}{2} \times 5$, 278 pp., map. Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1920.

This work is too well known to need a long notice, for it has been before the public for twenty years, and now a third edition has been called for. It occupied the lamented author just before his death. This is a thoroughly revised edition. In it he has brought the subject up to date and improved the treatment with the increased knowledge gained about it during the last ten years. The chapters on the Rock edicts and the Pillar and miscellaneous inscriptions have been rewritten, and the first three chapters have been corrected in accordance with the revised interpretation of the inscriptions and with recent archaeological discoveries.

F. E. P.

HISTORY OF BENGALI LITERATURE IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY, 1800–1825. By Sushil Kumar De, M.A. $8\frac{3}{4} \times 5\frac{1}{2}$, xx + 509 pp. University of Calcutta, 1919.

The author divides his subject into four periods, a retrospect of the literature from 1760-1800, the beginnings of modern

literature (1800-25), a time of transition (1825-58), and the development of the new literature (1858-94). This volume deals nominally with the second period, and begins with a review of the political history of the first period in relation to social and other changes, the decadence of the older literature and the religious life, which proceeded until Bengal received a new impetus, chiefly from English missionaries and civilians. The nineteenth century opened with the foundation of the College at Fort William and the activities of William Carey (who reached Bengal in 1793) and the other Śrīrampur missionaries, of certain civilians, and of the pandits of the Their cultivation of the vernacular, their translations into it and original compositions in it, and their journalistic ventures, are described fully and with interest, as marking the formative period and as constituting the elements out of which Bengalis themselves developed in time a fine diction and literature, elevated from the colloquial by Sanskrit ideals and words yet freed from pedantic subservience thereto.

Mr. De then turns back and reviews the literature of the period 1760-1800, the songs of the kabiwalas and other versified compositions; and he shows that, independently of the political vicissitudes, the old body of indigenous literature really became effete then, and needed fresh impulses to start it into new and vigorous expression. Altogether he devotes nearly as much space to that period as to the twenty-five years following; so that the volume is really a treatise on both periods. The style is rather diffuse, especially in the appraisements of the kabiwalas, and at times strange grammatical discords occur, generally between nouns and their verbs. Otherwise the book is well written, the language well-chosen and appropriately descriptive, and the criticisms are generally judicious; and throughout copious quotations are made from the literature reviewed. Unfortunately there is no index.

IBN 'ASĀKIR TĀRĪKH DIMASHQ. 8vo. Vol. I, 7 and 479 pp.; Vol. II, 464 and 11 pp.; Vol. III, 463 and 7 pp.; Vol. IV, 464 and 14 pages; Vol. V, 464 and 11 pp. Cairo: Raudat ash-Shām Press, A.H. 1329-32.

This important publication, which has apparently come to a stop, as several years have now elapsed since the last volume was published, deserves the special attention of Arabic scholars, as the author has drawn for the early history of Islām from sources which have not been utilized by the historians accessible to us.

The author, Abul Qāsim Alī b. al-Hasan b. Hibat Allāh Ibn Asākir, was born at the end of Muharram 499, in Damascus. He was early instructed in Muhammadan traditions, and travelled after attaining the age of 21 years to the 'Iraq and Persia in pursuit of his studies; later he returned to Damascus, where he died on the 21st of Rajab A.H. 571. He composed several works, among which his History of Damascus, in eighty volumes, is the most important. The author was inspired in undertaking this work by the History of Baghdad by the Khatīb Abū Bakr Almad b. 'Alī al Baghdādī. However, though for both works the main aim was to record the biographies of traditionists, Ibn 'Asākir, from our point of view, has brought together more valuable material as he gives far more space to the biographies of rulers, poets, etc., than the Khatīb, who loves to cite traditions through a long chain of persons who transmitted the same.

The disposition of the work is the following: After an introduction, upon which I shall speak later, the author gives in alphabetical order the biographies of men of note who either were born or lived in Damascus, but also persons are included who perhaps are only reported to have visited Damascus; and it is strange to find among the latter such names as the patriarch Abraham, Adam, Elias, Job, David, among biblical persons. He gives, however, great prominence to

¹ Vol. ii, 133-58. ² Vol. ii, 338-61. ³ Vol. iii, 95-100.

⁴ Vol. iii, 190-200. ⁵ Vol. v, 187-95.

celebrated and little known poets who visited Damascus. I only wish to draw attention to long biographies of Amru'ul Qais ¹ and Hassān b. Thābit.² From the historian's point of view there are numerous biographies of princes of the royal house of 'Umayya, and there is a long biography of the celebrated al-Hajjāj b. Yūsuf.³ There is also a long account of Umayya b. Abiṣ-Ṣalt.⁴

The introduction referred to above begins with philological explanations about the names of Syria and Damascus legendary accounts of the building of the city which have no historical value; then follow chapters which have no real value, but are a collection of traditions which are recorded as sayings of the Prophet concerning the merits of Damascus and Syria. Suddenly the author forgets his subject, and turns his attention to the biography of the Prophet 5 and his campaigns, then follow accounts of the conquest of Damascus, with the details of the varying narratives. The author describes the glories of the chief mosque Damascus, and a catalogue of the mosques, unfortunately is only a mere enumeration, omitting all topographical and historical details. The introduction ends with an account of the ascension of the Prophet, which in the editions ends rather abruptly, when immediately the biographies begin with Ahmad b. 'Utba.6 Here is certainly a considerable lacuna in the edition which apparently the editor has not noticed

Ibn 'Asākir, according to the custom of his times, gives with frequent repetitions the accounts of his various authorities, in each instance with long chains of the names of persons who have recorded the event or saying. This is the system in manuscript copies, such as a copy belonging to Mr. A. G. Ellis, which contains biographies of the letter 'Ain. The editor has intentionally omitted these chains of authorities, which, if done with judgment, would not matter; but I fear

¹ Vol. iii, 104-15.

² Vol. iv, 125-40.

³ Vol. iv, 48-84.

⁴ Vol. iii, 115-28.

⁵ Vol. i, p. 85 ff.

⁶ Vol. i, p. 391.

he has been a trifle too radical in pruning, and I believe has often combined several accounts into a more readable, connected text. He has added notes which in the first two volumes are at the foot of the pages, but in the following volumes they are incorporated in the text, being enclosed in brackets.

In a work containing matter of so varied character, it is not surprising that the editor has contented himself very often in printing the text just as he has found it in his manuscripts. The poetical pieces are frequently in such a form that they are not intelligible, but also frequently the names of persons are consistently wrongly printed, and the total absence of vocalization is naturally a great drawback. However, in spite of these drawbacks, the work is so important that it is to be hoped that the remainder of the history will soon be published, as the last biography so far published is that of Zaid b. al-Hasan b. 'Alī b. Abī Tālib.

F. KRENKOW.

INTER-STATE RELATIONS IN ANCIENT INDIA. Part I. By NARENDRA NATH LAW, M.A., P.L. 7 × 5, pp. 99. Calcutta Oriental Series, No. 4, E 1. London: Luzac, 1920.

In this short volume of 99 pages, Mr. Narendra Nath Law has made a study of the latter half of Kautiliya's Arthashastra, with a view to illustrating what is called "interstate relations". This term, however, must not be understood to mean the normal relations between states as understood now, but rather the abnormal relations—they were probably normal then—in which each state, if strong, wished to subdue its neighbours, and, if weak, defended its own existence by alliance, policy, and resources, financial, military, and moral.

It was postulated that each state was naturally an enemy to every state adjoining it. If we start with a state A, and imagine it surrounded with a zone or ring of states, B₁,

B₂, B₈, etc., then every one of the B states would be naturally hostile to A, because contiguous to A. Now, if we imagine the B zone to be surrounded by an outer ring of states, C₁, C₂, C₃, etc., each of these C states would be a natural enemy of the B state immediately contiguous. But an enemy of an enemy would be a natural iriend in statecraft; therefore, A and C₁ would be natural friends, having a common enemy, B₁. We might extend the series to D, E, and F. If we postulate six states so situated, there will be two groups of three states each, friendly within the group but hostile to the other group.

But A, B, and B, would all be contiguous to each other: which among them would be friends and which enemies? We take A and B, to be normal states mutually hostile; B, is ambiguous; if it goes with A it would be hostile to B, and if it goes with B, it would be hostile to A. B, is called Madhyama, which Mr. Law interprets to mean medium as regards strength and resources, that is to say, intermediate in strength between A and B, on the one hand, and, say, B, on the other, which is described Udāsīna (translated super-state). I take it that the attitude of such ambiguous states would be determined by other considerations than mere position. The Madhyama may be strong enough to fight either of the other two singly, but not both of them conjointly. The Udasina may be strong enough to fight the two ordinary states combined, and may even be able to take on an ordinary state and a Madhyama combined, but may not be able to fight three of them in combination.

This leads to a consideration of the seven factors which count in estimating a state's resources and strength. They are thus catalogued by Kautiliya: (1) the virtues and merits of the ruling authority; (2) those of the ministers; (3) the resources of the territory and the people; (4) forts and defensive positions; (5) treasure; (6) character of the army; and (7) character of the allies. A consideration of these factors would determine policy, of which again six courses

are enumerated, viz.: (1) treaties of alliance or peace, and the circumstances and incidents connected with them, including stratagems for the escape of hostages and for the planting of spies; (2) the making of war; (3) halt (biding one's time?); (4) attack; (5) self-surrender to the protection of another; and (6) an alliance with one and fighting with another. Steps are indicated in detail by which a state can acquire world power, beginning with the subjugation of weak or ordinary states, and progressively absorbing states of greater power ("medium" and "super" states).

Mr. Law has done well to compile this commentary on some of the ideas of ancient Hindu polity. If they appear cynical in places and too abstract to be of much practical use in actual diplomacy or warfare, they, at least, throw light on the way in which political and external state problems presented themselves to the Hindu mind in the age of Chandragupta. There is no glimpse of a comity of nations in the "circle" (mandala) of states here sketched-no equal states in friendly rivalry or co-operation, linked together in the common pursuit of human ends. A fierce struggle for existence pervades the whole atmosphere, but perhaps this is not to be wondered at in the transition period of the early Mauryas. A striking contrast is presented by the inscriptions of Asoka. And we must not forget the spirited protest of the gentle Bāna of Kādambari fame against Kautiliya, nine hundred years later.

A. Yusuf-Ali.

Sources of Vijayanagar History. By S. Krishnaswami Ayyangar. $9\frac{3}{4} \times 6\frac{1}{2}$, pp. xix + 394. University of Madras, 1920.

The Hampi ruins in the Bellary district of the Madras Presidency are to-day standing witnesses for Vijayanagar, "the City of Victory," the capital of an empire which stretched from sea to sea over the whole of Southern India.

The country round is a tumbled mass of granite boulders through which in a narrow gorge rushes the Tungabhadra River, hurrying to its junction with the River Kistna. The small fever-stricken hamlet of Hampi gives no idea of former greatness, but scattered amongst the low, rocky hills are massive stone temples with beautiful carvings, and for miles around are remains of fortifications wall behind wall. The outer gate of the ancient city was, indeed, 9 miles, as the crow flies, from the centre of the ruins.

The Hindu Empire of Vijayanagar covered a period of about 300 years, from A.D. 1336 to 1646, and was the final stand made by the Hindu against the Mohammedan invasion from the North. The materials for a history of Vijayanagar are abundant, but no complete and detailed study of the period has yet been made. The best outline account is given by Mr. Vincent Smith in his Oxford History of India, and the picturesque aarratives of two Portuguese chroniclers, as well as much other information, are reproduced in Mr. Robert Sewell's charming book, A Forgotten Empire. The Mohammedan historians living in the Deccan furnish their versions of the story, and hundreds of inscriptions have been deciphered providing much detail of interest. In addition to all this body of evidence there is much Sanskrit and Telugu literature dealing with the period, and the volume now before us contains ..umerous extracts from this last-named source.

Mr. Krishnaswami Ayyangar, who has selected and edited these extracts, gives an interesting summary of the main points on which fresh light is thrown. It will be for the future historian to judge how far casual references in non-historical literature can be accepted as the basis for historical data, but there is no doubt that the documents now brought together and published for the first time will afford valuable help to students of the period. It is well that work of this nature should be encouraged, and the University of Madras recognizes this fact.

The first document is a Sanskrit poem by a wife of Kampana,
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son of Bukka, who, with his brother Harihara, founded the empire in 1336. How these two brothers, who were probably kurubas or shepherds in the Telugu Deccan, came to assume command, and to consolidate a Hindu Empire over the whole of Southern India, is not explained in any of the present It is established, however, by contemporary inscriptions that neither Harihara nor Bukka assumed royal rank, and the editor seems to be wrong in speaking of the Emperor Bukka. The extracts themselves call him Bukka Raja and Pedda (or the elder) Bukka, who was overlord of the Carnatic, but there is no authority for the title of emperor. It would have been helpful to mark each document with an approximate date. Bukka died in 1376, and the first poem by Kampana's wife was probably written in Bukka's lifetime. The second extract jumps 100 years or more, as it is dedicated to Narasingha, whose reign did not begin till 1486. It deals, however, with Kampana's campaign in the South, the object being to extol Narasingha's ancestor, Saluva Mangu, who was one of Kampana's generals.

The middle years of the fifteenth century, which mark the decay of the first dynasty, have always been obscure, and extract No. 27 is of special interest. It is a Sanskrit poem telling of the haunted palace at Vijayanagar. The ruling Raya was Vimpaksha (1465), but had gained his throne by murdering all other claimants, and his palace became the home of ghosts, who worried the Raya by day and by night. Two holy men entered the building and read the Ramayana to the ghosts, who were so much impressed that they narrated the story of their death. The poem indicates that Vimpaksha was a usurper, and partly explains the support given a few years later to the successful general Narasingha Saluva, who broke the early line of kings and founded the second dynasty.

It is not possible in a brief review to examine the documents in detail. They show that the rulers of Vijayanagar were great patrons of literature and art. Mr. Vincent Smith says: "The kings of Vijayanagar from the beginning of their rule

were distinguished as builders of strong fortresses, immense works for irrigation and water supply, gorgeous palaces, and temples decorated with all the resources of art, both sculpture and painting." The efforts of Mr. Krishnaswami Ayyangar and other scholars are worthy of every support, for the empire which produced such works should certainly not be allowed to merit the epithet "forgotten".

R. C. CULLING CARR.

THE RITCHIES IN INDIA. By GERALD RITCHIE. $9 \times 5\frac{3}{4}$, xvi + 398 pp., 26 plates, and map. London: John Murray, 1920. 21s.

This is a pleasant book, and one that will be specially interesting to old Anglo-Indians. It is the record of a half-Scottish, half-English family, which has been prominent in Bengal for three generations. Like the Stephenses, the Ritchies were Aberdonians, and like them, too, their strong point was energy.

The Sylhet part of the book is rather thin. This is partly owing to Mr. Gerald Ritchie's weak health, which has prevented him from making researches, and partly, perhaps, to a natural desire to write gently of a Nabob who was the Indian founder of the clan, and also the grandfather of the famous novelist. William Makepeace Thackeray, the grandfather had plenty of vigour, and when he retired to England he became a zealous churchwarden and a benefactor to his friends and relatives. But during his Indian career he seems to have been unscrupulous and to have followed the Latin maxim, which, according to Trollope, must have been coined by some man who wished to give his friends an honest tip, of "Rem, si possis, recte, sed quocunque modo, rem."

The real honour of the family was his grandson, William Ritchie, who died in early middle age as Advocate-General of Bengal. His father was John Ritchie of Baltimore, and his mother was Charlotte Thackeray. The correspondence between the mother and son, and between the son and his

wife, is of a charming character. The mother's letter to her son of May 3, 1828, p. 15, is especially quaint and beautiful.

William Ritchie, the father of Gerald, did a fine thing in going out to India on the failure of his father's fortunes. Colonel Yule (is this Sir Henry Yule?) beautifully says of him in his epitaph that his rare success bred no envy, and we can well believe it of such a man as he must have been.

There were other connexions of Thackeray the novelist, besides those, mentioned in this book, who were resident in Sylhet and its neighbourhood. Among them was Gethin Shawe, who was judge of Sylhet. Some people used to say that he was the original of Josh Sedley, but he was a better man. He was not a great judge, and he was sarcastic about newfangled laws, but he was kind-hearted. And now, in my old age, I feel compunctions because in my ignorant and hotheaded youth I was rather a thorn in his side. I well remember how he startled me one morning by saying that "the newspapers are full to-day of my poor brother-in-law". I did not at first recollect that he was Thackeray's brother-in-law. There was also a General Thackeray, who was a V.C., and who, I hope, is still alive.

H. Beveridge.

P.S.—I have since learnt from a notice in the *Times* of the 19th inst. that Gerald died about the middle of this month. 27th May, 1921.

MAQRÎZÎ. EL MAWÂ'IZ WA EL Î'TIBÂR FÎ DHIKR EL KHITAT WA EL ÂTHÂR. Arabic text edited by M. GASTON WIET. 14 × 11, Vol. I, Part II, 196 pp.; Vol. II, Part I, ix + 228 pp. Cairo, 1911, 1913. In Mémoires publiés par les membres de l'Institut Français d'Archéologie Orientale du Caire. Tomes XXX, XXXIII.

The first fascicule of Monsieur Wiet's splendid edition of Maqrîzî's Khitat appeared in 1911, and was reviewed in this Journal for 1912. During the last six years publication has naturally been interrupted. Those who study the history

of Egypt will be glad to know that the editor is now proceeding with his work again. The parts actually issued cover about one-eighth of the whole of the text. The two latest instalments published are named above. They would have been noticed here long ago but for the war.

The history and geography of Egypt, which are contained in El Khitat, are in general a compilation of passages from earlier Arab authors, cited by Maqrîzî verbatim, with the addition of but little original matter of his own. Maqrîzî does not display much power of systematic arrangement or much sense of proportion in this book. One of his greatest merits is the completeness with which he despoils the works of his predecessors. Some of these books are still in existence, so that one is able to see how thoroughly he draws from them the substance material to his purpose, and hence there is reason to believe that he has treated in the same way the numerous other authors he quotes, whose works are now lost. As a rule, Maqrîzî is careful to name his sources.

The existing printed edition of El Khitat, which was published at Bûlâq nearly seventy years ago, teems with errors, and critical notes are almost entirely wanting. There is no index, and the urgency of the want in a book of about a thousand large pages, studded with proper names, is obvious.

Monsieur Wiet's edition is based upon some thirty MSS.; it is fully annotated and fully indexed. Besides the readings of the various MSS. and references to the originals in the case of quotations from books still in existence, the notes give parallel passages not infrequently. They show also where any parts of the text have been translated or commented upon by European scholars, and they contain many explanations and much information likely to be of use to the reader. Occasionally Monsieur Wiet expands a note so that it forms almost a monograph on some subject raised by the text, as in the case of the note relating to the price of wheat at various dates, and that concerning the dimensions of the pyramids according to the statements of different writers.

Besides the usual historical and geographical indices, there are five others; among them a chronological index showing every year which is mentioned, an index of functionaries and offices, and an index of the numerous words and expressions which are explained in the text itself or in the notes.

The book is being printed with great care, and turned out in the magnificent style as regards type and paper in which all the publications of the Mission appear. A text of such importance, edited with such thoroughness and such lavish pains, is sure to become a standard classic.

The sections under notice treat mainly of geography, antiquities, and taxation and administration. Under the first heading one finds something about the inhabitants of Egypt, the climate and various other points, but the principal topic is the Nile. The geography includes a great deal of myth and literary stuffing, and but little precise geographical fact, even about points that must have been within Maqrîzî's personal knowledge. One chapter consists of lists of provinces and districts showing how Egypt was divided up at various dates.

Antiquities are centred chiefly round an account of the pyramids. The Mohammedans could find no genuine reminiscences of Egypt of the Pharaohs among the people, so they evolved a more or less systematic mythical history. Specimens of this fabrication are given, with conjectures as to how and why the pyramids were built, and so forth. There is also a considerable amount of information as to the monuments of Egypt during the Mohammedan period. The existence of some that have disappeared is recorded, and one learns how monuments were discovered and explored, and how some became defaced and damaged.

A long chapter deals with the military organization of Egypt from the Arab conquest to the fifteenth century, with particular reference to the nationality of the troops at different epochs, and gives some information as to numbers. The beginning of this chapter relates to the first armies of Islam

as a whole. Much of it will be found in Tabarî, but it would seem that Maqrîzî probably drew the parallel passages from some other source.

No authority is given for an important statement as to the exact periods at which parchment replaced papyrus and paper replaced parchment in the dîwân, but it looks as if it could be accepted as accurate.

Many details of the taxation are given. When the Arabs took possession of Egypt they allowed the administration to continue with little alteration for a long time, and the taxation remained as before. In general, the central government fixed the charges to be borne by localities, and left the contributions to be paid by individuals to make up the quota to be settled locally. In the eighth century there was some change. The Government seems to have asserted its right to all land and farmed it out to the highest bidders, under leases granted for terms of four years. Besides taxes on land there were a number of other taxes, not considered lawful by Muslims and so suppressed now and then by pious sovereigns, but constantly revived. The Government also raised money in other ways, such as by monopolies, licences, and trading. There was another change in the twelfth century. country was parcelled out into feoffs, a part of which were reserved for the Government, the remainder being divided between the amirs and the troops.

The land tax raised depended to some extent on the irrigation for the particular year. The tax on any piece of land depended on the particular crop grown. There were land settlements from time to time and annual surveys, at least at some periods. The revenue of Egypt varied a good deal at different epochs.

Much of our knowledge with regard to the taxation and finance of Egypt in the earlier centuries of Muslim rule reposes on what has been collected here by Maqrîzî. Now and then doubt may be entertained as to his accuracy, for instance, when he attributes the origin of taxes other than land tax

entirely to Ibn el Mudabbir; but in certain points he is fully corroborated by the papyri. Maqrîzî expresses decided views as to the economic progress of Egypt under the Muslims. He pictures a more or less continuous decline in prosperity, and the reason he gives is that those in authority were never ready to spend sufficient on irrigation. He also indicates that the feoffs had reduced the peasantry to a degree of slavery unknown before. Doubtless the Mohammedan era in Egypt has been in general a period of decay. There are still a good many matters connected with the taxes that have not yet been explained, and require explanation before the conditions can be clearly understood and the course of events followed.

A. R. G.

MATERIAUX POUR SERVIR À LA GÉOGRAPHIE DE L'ÉGYPTE.

Par JEAN MASPERO et GASTON WIET. In Mémoires publiés par les membres de l'Institut Français d'Archéologie Orientale du Caire. Tome XXXVI. 14 × 11, v + 282 pp. Cairo, 1919.

Under a modest title, this book supplies a long-felt want, for it affords a comprehensive guide to the geography of Egypt in the middle ages. Hitherto the subject has been difficult to follow, although it has been much discussed by European writers, who have studied it both for the sake of Mohammedan history and because it is a stepping-stone to the earlier geography. Arab geographies and histories and other books in Arabic contain a great deal of material relating to the geographical conditions of Egypt during Mohammedan times, but much of it consists of repetition and of detail limited to a narrow range of topics, and it is defective in many respects. The original authorities are generally wanting in precision, and are not free from mistakes. Their texts, moreover, have been distorted by copyists. They require careful comparison with one another before much use can be made of them, and they are contained in a considerable number of books. The modern researches into the sources are likewise

dispersed widely. Except for poirts more or less immediately obvious, the inquirer has been under the necessity of searching through a large and increasing mass of literature himself.

The present book is a geographical dictionary. In this form it groups together the information given by Maqrîzî (in his Khitat) as to the towns of Egypt. For each town there is given a summary of Maqrîzî's statements with regard to it, the identification, where possible, of the Arabic name with that in use before Islam, a selection of statements from other Arab authors, who are cited in chronological order, and the modern name equivalent. Other geographical features are treated similarly. Each article takes the form of an independent re-examination of its subject, the results of any previous inquiries by others being duly noticed and utilized.

Maqrîzî names nearly ail the places of any consequence in the Mohammedan period up to his day, and what has been taken from other authors appears to represent in general all the additions of importance to what Maqrîzî tells us which are to be derived from them. The method adopted, therefore, produces a review of nearly all the main points of mediaeval Egyptian geography, summarizing or at least indicating the original evidence, and showing what has been deduced from it up to now. Full references to the works cited are given, so the book is well adapted to serve as a basis for any further inquiries, and being furnished with excellent indices in French, Greek, and Coptic, as well as in Arabic, its contents are easily accessible to those who do not know Arabic.

The amount of research required for the task is evident on looking at a page or two. Great care seems to have been exercised, and misprints and minor errors, so difficult to avoid, are very few, if not entirely absent. A number of new identifications are made, and a good many mistakes that have been made by others are corrected.

But few of the mediaeval towns of Egypt now remain unlocated. Among the number one must put 'Aidab, for the identification with Berenice offers great difficulties, notwithstanding the evidence produced in favour of it. Another is Naqyûs (Niciu), though the approximate position is known in this case. The town, by the by, is mentioned in Khitat at least once (ii, 337), but it does not seem to be alluded to in this book, and one could wish it had been included for the sake of completeness.

The position of nearly all the kûrahs or districts into which Egypt was divided in the earlier part of the Mohammedan time is definitely fixed. The division into kûrahs varied to some extent from time to time, and full comparative lists are given, as also lists of the provinces which superseded the kûrahs and differed, too, in some degree at different periods. Aphrodito, although it was a kûrah within the Mohammedan epoch, would seem not to be mentioned as such by any of the Arab writers, and is only alluded to once in the volume, incidentally. While the division into provinces is known to have been in force in the eleventh century, the date at which the kûrahs were given up does not seem to be established within a century or more. The change to provinces may be believed to have meant a fundamental change in the administration to the detriment of local autonomy. exact determination of its date is desirable for this reason. Another point that remains for further research is the irrigation. All that seems to be possible in the way of tracing the Nile and the canals at various epochs with the material accessible appears to have been done, and further information must depend on discovering new sources.

Among the historical notes to which allusion has been made there may be mentioned one on Alexandria, treating chiefly of its administration, including a list of some of its governors. Under El Qâhireh the recorded names of the governors of Cairo are collected; another note brings together details given by various authors of the revenues of Egypt.

M. Jean Maspero, one of the authors, having joined the forces early in the war, was killed in action towards the beginning of 1915. The tribute of his colleague to his memory

in the preface shows how great was the loss. Incidentally, there is an allusion to a most remarkable discovery made by M. Jean Maspero shortly before the war broke out. In some fragments of papyri he came across a letter from Mu'âwiyah to 'Alî. It is to be hoped that this document will be published.

A. R. G.

ISLAMISCHE SCHRIFTBÄNDER AMIDA-DIARBEKR.—XI. JAHR-HUNDERT. ANHANG: KAIRUAN, MAYYARFARIQÎN, TIRMIDH. By S. FLEURY. 4to., pp. 52, with 20 plates and 16 figures. Probenius, Basel, and Geuthner: Paris, 1920.

As the author remarks in his opening paragraph, it is a cause for astonishment that the splendid decoration provided by bands of inscription in elaborate Kufic has not been previously studied by writers on Muhammadan art. Mr. Flury has been the first to specialize in this field, commencing his studies with the early Fatimide period in Egypt, the results of which appeared in a valuable monograph, Die Ornamente der Hakim- und Ashar-Moschee. In the present memoir he has made a detailed study of the eleventh century inscriptions of Amida (Diyarbekr), as it is there that may be found, united in one place, the conditions necessary for a truly scientific study of an evolving series of inscriptions, viz. exact dating, superior artistic quality of execution, and uniformity of material. He studies a series of inscriptions dated 426 (1034-5), 437 (1045-6), 444 (1052-3) 460 (1067-8), 482 (1089-90), 485 (1092-3), 550 (1055-6), and 559 (1163-4), analysing them, and in nearly all cases reconstructing alphabets from them. The first inscription exhibits the "flowering Kufic" already well developed, the vertical shafts of the letters ending, in nearly every case, in a two-lobed leaf, instead of being merely split as in the inscription on the Nilometer at Cairo (199 H. = 814-5). In the inscription of 437 (1045-6). a whole series of new elements appear, and the rising tails

of the $r\hat{u}$, $n\hat{u}n$, and $u\hat{u}w$ end in elaborately decorated threequarter circles. It was under the Seljûq Turks, however, that the writing attained at Amida its most characteristic development, and the inscriptions of Malik Shâh in the Great Mosque exhibit everywhere the increasing tendency to the interlacing and plaiting of the shafts. The artist has also created a new principle whereby single letters lose their individuality and groups of letters are treated as a single decorative feature. Thus we pass from the "rythmic" to the "picturesque" style, a transition which may be observed, as the author points out, in the Naskh inscriptions of Egypt.

As governing principle he shows that the calligraphic decorator aimed at covering in a fairly uniform manner the band to be decorated. Ancient monumental Kufic, such as that of the Nilometer at Cairo, in no way satisfied this canon, as the base line divides the background into two unequal zones, of which the lower, occupying about one-third of the whole, was nearly bare. The displacement of the writing towards the bottom edge of the band, which took place later, did not solve the problem, because the vertical shafts of the letters had many wide gaps between them. Hence the combination of these shafts with purely ornamental elements to create a uniform sprinkling of the background. This problem occupied the artists throughout the eleventh century.

As for the place of origin of the decorated Kufic, the author establishes two most important points, (1) that the inscription of Amida dated 426 (1034–5) exhibits a degree of evolution only found in Cairo a hundred years later, and (2) that a recently published inscription on a tower at Radkan, in north-east Persia, dated 407 (1016–17) is in an elaborate style only found at Amida 150 years later. Thus the stream of influence appears to have flowed westward from Persia.

Mr. Flury's studies are of great importance, not only for the history of Moslem ornament at a period when calligraphy played so important a part, but also on account of the new criteria which they provide for the dating of monuments bearing inscriptions which are merely Quranic. He is to be congratulated on the results of his researches in a field which is entirely his own, and students of Moslem art will impatiently await the further memoirs promised by him.

K. A. C. CRESWELL.

A HISTORY OF PERSIA. By Sir PERCY SYKES. Second Edition. 2 Vols. 9×6 , xxvii + 563 pp.; xix + 594 pp., 201 plates, 7 maps. London: Macmillan & Co., Ltd., 1921.

The first edition of this History appeared in 1915, and was reviewed at some length by Mr. Longworth Dames in the October number of the *Journal* for that year. Sir Percy Syke's has now published a second edition of his work, revising it in many particulars and adding eight chapters which bring it up to date.

This Journal is not the place for the discussion of political questions; but it must be observed that the fresh period which has been added to the subject matter of the History is one of special importance—the period of the Great War, which has changed the face not only of Persia, but of the world. And it is safe to say that no man living was so well fitted for telling the story as Sir Percy Sykes. In reviewing the first edition, Mr. Longworth Dames drew attention to the writer's "unrivalled experience of the country of Persia, and of its people, their customs, their art, and their archæology". This unique qualification for the work stands out with double clearness when the historian comes to deal with events "quorum pars magna fuit". Possibly it tends here and there to detract slightly from the historical manner of the book, but it ensures the accuracy of the statements made regarding a very intricate series of military and political operations, and renders them comprehensible. If told by a writer whose knowledge had been gathered entirely in his library, the story would be very haid to follow,

for the writer would himself understand but imperfectly the characters, and lines of thought and action, of the various races which go to make up the population of Iran. As told by Sir Percy Sykes, with his very different type of knowledge, the story becomes a lucid and consistent whole. I have not space to comment in detail upon the various points of interest which are treated in this second edition, but they are many; and the reader, as he passes from one to another, cannot fail to be impressed by a feeling, which is evidently the writer's feeling, of admiration for the high level of courage and practical capacity shown in difficult circumstances by unknown men and women of British race. Whether in the great adventure of the "Dunsterville mission" to Baku, or in the operations of the force which restored order and peace to the vast tracts of Southern Persia, or in other positions of trial, those qualities seem to emerge as a matter of course; and it is cheering at times, when we are passing through episodes of apparent failure in war, or in the organizations of peace, or in the contests of sport, to think how true to type the average Englishman shows himself to be, all over the world, when he finds himself faced with novel dangers and responsibilities.

The last chapter of Sir Percy Sykes's book, "Persia after the Great War," is perhaps the most interesting chapter of all. As one lays it down one can only feel with the writer a hope, not a certainty but a hope, that in time to come Persia will once more play a part in the world worthy of her splendid past. Nowhere could her people find more encouragement to do so than in the pages of this History.

H. M. DURAND.

ENGLISH-CHINESE DICTIONARY OF THE STANDARD CHINESE SPOKEN LANGUAGE AND HANDBOOK FOR TRANSLATORS. By K. HEMELING, Ph.D. 10 × 6½, vi + 1726. Shanghai, 1916. London: P. S. King.

On first opening this rather massive octavo volume of 1,700 odd pages, one gathers the impression that it must be

intended for a dictionary of technical terms, so large is the proportion that these bear to the total number of entries. The preface, however, informs us that it is "fundamentally". a dictionary of the Mandarin colloquial, though it also contains new words and terms used in almost every branch of science and literature. So ambitious a scheme has made it necessary to attempt at least some rudimentary classification, such as we find in Genähr's Cantonese Dictionary, in order to guide the bewildered student through the mazes of Chinese terminology. Accordingly, the following categories are specially marked and distinguished: (1) vulgar or slang terms; (2) literary terms; (3) modern terms; and (4) the standard scientific terms selected for the use of Chinese universities and schools by Dr. Yen Fu. The last-named class alone comprises some 30,000 terms, all of which have apparently been dumped into these pages without any further process of selection.

It is hardly fair to complain because we are given more than we have reason to expect, but one cannot help questioning Mr. Hemeling's judgment in allowing so large a number of extremely uncommon words to take up so much valuable space. Who, for instance, can conceivably want a more or less factitious Chinese equivalent for such words as chondropterygious, corm, skirret, Bess o' Bedlam, Peyer's Patches, nandin, dolomedes, papico, götterbaum, and rawund? The last five do not appear in Murray's Oxford English Dictionary! Nor does Bajadere, the German form of bayadere; "dancer" or "dancing-girl", on the other hand, might well have been included here. The same, perhaps, may be said of the verb "to chamfer"; and "chalice" appears only in the misspelt form "challis", which is really a dress fabric. The omission of the word "expletive" is indefensible, considering how rich the Chinese language is in particles which come under that designation. How it should be translated is another question: chu yü tz'ŭ (help-speechword) is a possible rendering; and hsü tzŭ (empty character)

is sometimes used in this restricted sense, though it is more usually applied to abstract terms in general.

It is obvious that many out-of-the-way terms, such as those we have quoted, can only be rendered in a kind of bastard Chinese, as uncouth or as unintelligible as dog-Latin. Take "panpneumatism"-a term, according to Murray, " used by von Hartmann (only) to designate a higher synthesis of Panlogism . . . and Panthelism . . . according to which the absolute is both will and thought "-what can a Chinese make of this abstruse conception when boiled down into fanling-lun (float-spirit-theory)? Often the task of inventing such circumlocutions has proved too arduous, and mere transliteration has been resorted to; thus, "mendipite" is simply, though with dubious utility, transformed into mên-ti-p'ei-tê. On the whole, however, Mr. Hemeling is to be commended for the evident pains he has taken to obtain idiomatic Chinese equivalents for English phrases, especially sayings and proverbs. For instance, "You can't make a silk purse out of a sow's ear " is well rendered by " A dog's mouth will not vomit ivory," and, "higgledy-piggledy" by ch'i tien pa tuo (a curious parallel, by the by, to our phrase, "At sixes and sevens"). Sometimes he is less happy: in the familiar tag, "Man is not good for a thousand days, nor are flowers red for a hundred," it is hard to recognize the proverb, "Every dog has his day." Again, "That cock won't fight" is a figurative way of saying that a plea or an argument will not hold; it may be doubted whether this meaning is idiomatically expressed in Chinese by "This tiger doesn't bite people". Under Pope we find "Virginian Pope", but not "Taoist Pope", the term now consecrated by long usage for T'ien Shih, the Celestial teacher. The Chinese word hsien ought surely to appear under "immortal", and fang-shih (lit. master of recipes) under "adept", or "necromancer", or "medicine-man".

Perhaps the least satisfactory feature of the work, for which the excuses offered are decidedly unconvincing, is the omission of all tone-marks. It is true that tones do vary considerably in different dialects, and are sometimes even affected by the position of a word in a sentence; but all the same, half a loaf is a great deal better than no bread, and to refer the student to "his teacher or some authoritative work" is simply shifting the difficulty to other shoulders. A teacher may not always be handy; and the student who finds that the use of Mr. Hemeling's dictionary necessarily involves the possession of another, will be tempted to economize by purchasing only the latter.

The author warns us to be on our guard against printing errors; but the proofs have evidently been read with great care, and a fairly prolonged search has failed to reveal a single wrong character. The type employed is excellent, and the general arrangement of the page could hardly be bettered.

L. GILES.

Introduction to Prakrit. By Alfred C. Woolner, M.A. $9\frac{1}{2} \times 6$, 219 pp. Published by the University of the Panjab, Lahore. 1917.

One of the untoward results of the war was that Orientalists in England had few opportunities of knowing what was being done by their brethren in India, and that books printed in that country between 1914 and 1918 became little known here, and, even when known, were not easy to procure. The present volume is a case in point.

Beginners of the study of Prakrit in this country have hitherto had to depend chiefly on Professor Jacobi's Ausgewühlte Erzählungen, an excellent work, but possessing the double disadvantage of describing only one dialect—Mahārāṣṭrī—and being written in a foreign language. Pischel's great work is, of course, suited only for advanced students. Mr. Woolner has now provided an introduction to all the dialects of Prakrit which is written in English. He takes as

his base standard Śaurasēnī-Mahārāṣṭrī, the two dialects being throughout put side by side and treated together. In a separate chapter he deals with the special peculiarities of the other dialects, Pāli, Māgadhī, Apabhramśa, and so on.

The book is in two parts. The first (pp. 1–80) contains a brief but clear and complete introduction to the subject as a whole, an account of the three stages of Prakrit—Pāli, Middle Prakrit, and Late Apabhramśa—and a description of the chief literary forms and their general characteristics. Then follow chapters on phonetics, accidence, the dialects, and Prakrit literature. The whole is lucidly written and carefully printed. It is exceptionally free from misprints, and the one or two that I have detected are merely types misplaced in the printing in such a manner that the necessary correction is at once suggested. The book is thus not only a convenient, but also a safe guide, a statement that, unfortunately, cannot be said of many learned books published in India.

The second part (pp. 81-194) consists of specimens of Prakrit, and forms an admirable reading book. Mr. Woolner rightly starts the student on Saurasēnī—the dramatic Prakrit which is nearest to Sanskrit, and which is the grandparent of modern Hindī—and of this he gives about twenty pages of extracts from the plays. The student is then led on to Mahārāṣṭrī (twenty pages), Jain Mahārāṣṭrī (about the same amount), and so to Ardha-Māgadhī, Māgadhī, and other dialects, concluding with ten pages devoted to Pāli and the older inscriptional Prakrits. All these specimens are supplied with abundant notes and with translations, and in addition there is a very full Index-Vocabulary. The work is completed by the addition of a Students' Bibliography, which should be found most useful by beginners.

We must congratulate Mr. Woolner on having thus successfully removed a reproach that has long hung heavily over English Orientalists. Many of us will wish that such a book had been available in our own student days, and even to older stagers it will be found a most convenient work of reference.

I can thus warmly commend it to the notice of every student of Indian languages.

G. A. GRIERSON.

Camberley, 13th May, 1921

LA LANGUE ÉTRUSQUE DIALECTE DE L'ANCIEN ÉGYPTIEN. By HILAIRE DE BARENTON. $11 \times 7\frac{1}{4}$, 62 pp. Paris : Geuthner, 1920.

It is a matter of some difficulty to treat this work seriously. The author's knowledge of the principles of comparative philology in general, and of the grammar and syntax of the Egyptian language in particular, hardly appears adequate for the task he has undertaken, and he allows himself to be betrayed into writing such nonsense as—

"'ARIMI was, it is said, the name of the monkey among the Egyptians (Strabo, xiii, 46).' The name of the monkey, in the Hieroglyphic-Coptic language, signified "the imitator". It was pronounced ALC antou, ain, aini in Egyptian; cn in Coptic. Now an (cini in Coptic) meant "to imitate, write". The monkey, then, was "the imitator".

But in Hieroglyphic, $\mathcal{Q}Q$, arimà, arimi means exactly "to imitate", $\acute{a}r$ (ari in Coptic) "to act"; $m\acute{a}$ ($ma\ddot{i}$, mi) "the like", that is to say, "to imitate." This word, then, well describes the monkey.

We have not found this word arimi, with the sense of monkey, in the Hieroglyphic-Coptic texts. It is none the less a word of the language and an exact synonym of aniou, which signifies monkey."

On this we may remark (1) that the Egyptian for a monkey is Ama R, 4 mm R or make R, 3°n, i'n or 'c'n, and that M. de Barenton's form is a rather rare form of the plural; (2) that the verb make R or is not "to

imitate" (for which word Dr. Budge's new dictionary contains no Egyptian equivalent), nor "to write" (which is ss, formerly, it is true, read 'n), but "to paint"; (3) that there is no likelihood of a philological connexion between this verb and the word for "monkey"; (4) that it is as impossible in Egyptian as it is in any other language to form nouns out of such undigested phrases as "to act like".

An attempt to trace the origin of a language which is based on philological ineptitudes such as these cannot be adjudged successful.

G. L. M. CLAUSON.

RIG-VEDIC INDIA. By ABINAS CHANDRA DAS, M.A., B.L., etc. Vol. I, $8\frac{1}{2} \times 5\frac{1}{2}$, pp. xxii, 592. Calcutta University, 1921.

This is an interesting work by one who is well versed in Vedic lore. It consists of an inquiry into the early history of India as reflected or "depicted" in the Rig-Veda, when examined in the light of modern geological, archaeological, and ethnological investigations and results. His contention that it would be absurd to treat the Rig-Veda and the other Vedas, the Brâhmanas, the Upanishads, and the Sutras, as all belonging to one and the same period, seems to me quite Historical strata, layers, or successions there reasonable. must be, whether these are traceable, or have been discovered, or not. There are, in this connexion, aspects relative to the character and composition of the Vedas, of which Mr. Das does not appear to me to have taken proper account. He has collected much interesting material, of a geological kind, in support of the climatic and distributional changes in ancient India, but the difficulty is far greater, than he appears to realize, to connect or identify the Rig-Veda hymns or compositions with the geological changes or successions in a convincing manner. He never hesitates to charge Western

scholars with preconceived ideas, but one is compelled to doubt whether he does not rival them in this respect when determining the "anciquity" of the Rig-Veda in as "hoary" a manner as possible. Still, he has provided much interesting material for discussion. He fears that "Vedic scholars will accuse" him of "romancing wildly" on the age of "some of the oldest hymns of the Rig-Veda" (p. 567), and I very much fear they will, for the evidence furnished is of too conjectural and problematic a character. This is not meant to detract from the ability and plausibility with which Mr. Das presents his case, but is meant to emphasize the fact that, to a mind with any real geological training, the geological issues are themselves too hypothetical to serve for confident and dogmatic conclusions as to the age of the Vedic compositions. On p. 553 we find Mr. Das himself confessing, after much discussion, that "the original cradle of the Aryans must remain undetermined". And so we are back to the bootless quest for origins, which is not to say that the discussions are without use and interest.

The book consists of twenty-six chapters, the earliest of which are concerned with the antiquity of the Rig-Veda and of the Aryans; the intermediate chapters with Aryan influence on other ancient civilizations; the eight chapters which follow are controversial, and centre on the late Mr. Tilak's theory of the Arctic cradle of the Aryans. These are succeeded by the concluding chapter, a bibliography, and an excellent index. I have spoken of the aim and method of the earliest chapters, and now remark that the intermediate chapters are in themselves interesting, whether one can accept the extravagances in theory of Mr. Das or not. He makes the Vedic civilization or Indo-Aryan influence practically the mother of all the ancient civilizations, whether Phœnician, or Assyrian, or Babylonian, or Egyptian. "The real fact was," he says, "that when the whole world was steeped in utter darkness, the Rig-Vedic Aryans on the banks of the sacred Sarasvati and the Sindhu, and in the beautiful valley

of Kashmir, lighted up the holy fire of civilization and spiritual culture and kept it burning and glowing for hundreds of thousands of years for the benefit of humanity" (p. 284). Mr. Das never misses an opportunity for a tilt at Western scholars and European savants, with their "blind prejudice", "circumscribed vision", and lack of "calm and dispassionate mind", and so forth; but an impartial reader could, if so minded, with not less justice, hurl these charges back on Mr. Das himself. He overlooks the obvious but important consideration that Western scholars and European savants are in more neutral and favourable position for forming a judgment, as between the ancient Indian and other ancient civilizations, than native scholars like himself, identified with one of the civilizations in question. An excellent example of this drawback in our author is afforded in the very summary and dogmatic, and rather illogical, fashion in which he pronounces the indebtedness of Egypt to India, without any discussion of the testimonies or evidences per contra, which, without offering any opinion on the subject, I am entitled to say he ought to have known and disposed of. This kind of omission makes much of his work less convincing than it would otherwise be, as a more self-critical author would have

The work in whole, however, affords ample proof of the author's learning and industry as a Rig-Veda scholar.

JAMES LINDSAY.

KITAB LOGHAT MĚLAYU. By R. O. WINSTEDT, D.Litt., and Ibrahim bin Dato' Muda Linggi. $9\frac{1}{2} \times 7\frac{1}{4}$, pp. 138. Singapore: Kelly & Walsh, Ltd., 1921.

This is a Malay dictionary of a peculiar and rather original sort, being entirely in Malay and written primarily for Malays and others to whom that language is most familiar. Accordingly it does not aim at anything like completeness, but deliberately omits a number of very common words,

whose meaning is universally known amongst its prospective readers, and likewise local and many special technical terms as well. It has also resisted the temptation of pouring the contents of the Arabic lexicon into its pages, selecting only such as are in ordinary literary or colloquial use. The result is a very useful book of reference for those for whose convenience it was designed. The key-words are in the Arabic character and alphabetical order, but a Romanized transcription is added. The explanations are in Romanized Malay. It may be questioned whether it would not have been better to give these in the Arabic character also. But to add them would have involved doubling the size and cost of the volume, while the omission of the Romanized definitions would have left the work a sealed book to thousands who do not read the Arabic character. As the younger generation of Malays is familiar with both scripts, whereas Malay-speaking foreigners do not as a rule trouble to learn the Arabic character, the system followed is amply justified.

C. O. Blagden.

Beschrijving van den Koan Iem-Tempel Tiao-Kak-Sie te Cheribon. Door J. L. J. F. Ezerman. Bataviaasch Genootschap van Kunsten en Wetenschappen. Populairwetenschappelijke Serie, No. II. $10\frac{1}{2} \times 7\frac{1}{2}$, pp. 62, 24 plates.

This little work is a popular description of a small Chinese temple at Cheribon (Java), dedicated to Kuan Yin, a Chinese impersonation of Avalokiteśvara, but also containing altars in honour of other saints, heroes, and divinities. The period of its foundation is unknown; of the many inscriptions it contains the oldest dates from 1658, but since then the building has been three times restored and practically completely rebuilt. It was the creation of a resident Chinese community, long ago established at this place, and in close touch with its country of origin, to wit, the region round Amoy which has sent out so many adventurous colonists to Indonesia, where they have

faithfully preserved the traditions and customs of their homeland.

Apart from certain structural and decorative architectural features, the chief interest of the temple consists in a series of panels portraying in the most realistic Chinese fashion the gruesome tortures of the Buddhist hells. The author's account is characterized throughout by a sympathetic understanding of the Chinese spirit, both in art and religion, which makes it very agreeable reading and enables the reader to approach the subject from the right point of view. The chief inscriptions found in the temple are appended, with translations. The illustrations, both good and numerous, include for comparative purposes a few other Chinese buildings besides the actual subject of the monograph, to which, except for the inevitable absence of colour, they seem to do full justice.

C. O. BLAGDEN.

SOME RECENT WORKS ON MALAY SUBJECTS

DICTIONARY OF COLLOQUIAL MALAY (MALAY-ENGLISH AND ENGLISH-MALAY). By R. O. WINSTEDT. 6×4^3_4 , pp. iii, 176. Singapore: Kelly & Walsh, Ltd., 1920.

This handy little book of 176 pages will be a useful help to the large number of persons who are concerned only with the ordinary spoken languages and have no need to learn purely literary or recondite technical terms, or words that are only understood in particular areas. I have noticed very few points open to criticism, and will only single out two of them for mention. The word tělěntang does not occur in the Malay-English part (though it does in the English-Malay). I have never heard tělah in the colloquial, and am disposed to think that it hardly satisfies the author's test of being "current coin of conversation", though it is common enough in books. But it is impossible to review a work of this kind in detail. I have been content to take samples from it, and find it admirably suited to its purpose.

MALAY LITERATURE SERIES, 16: HIKAYAT BAYAN BUDIMAN ATAU CHERITA KHOJAH MAIMUN. Edited with introduction and notes by R. O. WINSTEDT. $8\frac{1}{2} \times 5\frac{1}{2}$, pp. 228. Singapore: Printed at the Methodist Publishing House, 1920.

This first printed edition of one of the Malay recensions of the "Tales of a Parrot" goes back ultimately through the Persian Tuti Nameh to the Sanskrit Śukasaptati, and contains twenty-four tales within the framework of its main story. An appendix has been added, giving from other MSS. (of which several have been collated) a variant version of one tale and two additional stories, a variant introduction, and the text in the Arabic character of an old fragmentary Bodleian MS. of part of the book. The whole is preceded by a scholarly Introduction, a Comparative Table of the tales, and an outline of them in English. It is an interesting collection of folk stories in good Malay.

Papers on Malay Subjects (Second Series): Johol, Inas, Ulu Muar, Jempul, Gunong Pasir and Terachi—Their History and Constitution. By J. E. Nathan and R. O. Winstedt. 10½ × 7, pp. i, 90. Published for the Committee for Malay Studies, Federated Malay States, and printed at the Baptist Mission Press, Calcutta, 1920.

The tiny "states" mentioned in the title form part of the State (or confederation) known as Negri Sembilan, "the Nine States," situated to the north and west of the British territory of Malacca. This monograph gives an interesting account of their history, which is somewhat obscure, and of their constitution, which is based upon an exogamic system of tribes or clans descending in the female line. This peculiar feature was derived from Minangkabau immigrants coming from the uplands of Central Sumatra, who intermingled with the aborigines and imposed their matrilineal system, which has persisted with various local modifications to this day.

When this process of colonization began is not known, and the antiquity of these little states has been the subject of much discussion. The earliest mention of the Minangkabau immigrants in the Peninsula that I have met with occurs in Couto's Da Asia (Dec. X, pp. 357-61, of the Lisbon edition of 1788). We are there told that in 1586 the "Manacambos" (for "Manancabos") of "Nam" (for "Nani", i.e. Naning) raided the plantations and orchards along the Malacca river, from which the town derived its fruit and vegetables. punitive expedition sent up river reached the enemy's stronghold on the 12th November, and destroyed it. The Portuguese commander, Diogo de Azambuja, hearing of further Minangkabaus at "Rombo" (Rĕmbau), decided to destroy that place also, but on his way thither he was persuaded to desist, on its being represented to him that the chief there had retired and the people were peaceably disposed. It is mentioned that the Naning raiders had been "friends" of the Portuguese. In fact, as expressly stated by Godinho de Eredia in his Declaraçam de Malaca (1613), they were vassals of Portugal, inhabiting part of Malacca territory, while Rĕmbau lay outside it and was under Johor.

It is pretty evident that the Minangkabaus at this time were not newcomers, and Eredia's map shows the district around Rěmbau as "Regiam de Monancabos". Of the places mentioned in the work under review it gives Rombo, Gelë, Iol, Pungor, Iompol, and Sartim, and between the last two, Panarícan, where boats were dragged from the Jěmpul river to the Sěrting, besides a sketch of part of the Pahang river some way further on. If Johol and Jěmpul are not of ancient foundation as states, they can, at least, claim a respectable antiquity as place-names. I have thought it worth while to mention these matters, because the authors of this monograph seem rather inclined to discount the age of these little states. It only remains to be said that their work is based on carefully collected and critically sifted evidence, and has been put together in a clear and scholarly way.

Papers on Malay Subjects. A History of the Peninsular Malays, with Chapters on Perak and Selangor. By R. J. Wilkinson, C.M.G. Second edition, revised. $9\frac{3}{4} \times 5$, pp. 173. Singapore: Kelly and Walsh, Ltd., 1920.

The first edition of this work was published in 1908, and this re-issue, besides correcting some errors of its original, represents a considerable increase in bulk, and includes a good deal of new and interesting matter. On the other hand, it is to be regretted that this has entailed the omission of the "technical metter" referred to in the Preface, for that was also interesting and valuable. Of the fresh material embodied in this edition, the most important part concerns the introduction of the "residential system" into the principal Native States of the Peninsula and the proximate causes of the Perak war. It is not my wish to revive painful controversies of nearly half a century ago, so I refrain from entering into a discussion of the ghastly blunders that were made. position was undoubtedly a difficult one, and as the author justly says, it is easy to be wise after the event. He tells the story with tactful reserve, and in a spirit of scrupulous fairness to all parties concerned, and it is not his fault if hardly any of them come out of it very well.

Mr. Wilkinson has been the first in the field to attempt anything like a critical and complete history of the Peninsula. Of course, it is complete only in the sense that it begins ab ovo and continues almost down to our own times; but there are many inevitable gaps where data are entirely wanting, and the treatment is necessarily brief. Yet he manages to create an impression of reality and make the dry bones live, besides setting the whole into its true perspective. It is a work that has certainly involved much thought and research. I venture, therefore, to regret that he should have given us no reference to his sources, and not even a bibliographical list of them. This may do well enough for the general reader, but it leaves the aspiring student in the lurch, and it also tends to create a

false impression as to the extent of the author's own share in the ascertainment of the facts which he relates. Many of these facts have only recently been laid bare by fellow workers in the same field, while others have been matters of common knowledge for a long time past. It seems desirable to differentiate between the two sets of cases. There has also been a good deal of inaccuracy in the transfer of this borrowed material, and it seems worth while to give here some of the errors that I have noticed. When another edition is called for, as it certainly will be some day, they might with advantage be corrected.

The inscription referred to on p. 15 commemorates one Shaikh Ahmad (not Hasan), and its date is not 862 but A.H. 872. Ibid., a makara (sic) is not a "divinity". For Bintang (p. 23) read Bentan, as elsewhere. It was not I Tsing, but the Arab geographers, who spoke of the ruler of Palembang as "Maharaja" (p. 24), and though the family of the Palembang princes is in inscriptions styled śailendravamśa, there is no record (so far as I am aware) of any vernacular equivalent such as the Malay title "Maharaja Gunong" (p. 31). Kadaha (p. 26) read Kaţāha. For Chula (p. 27), read Chola (Cola). Ibid., in A.D. 992 Mahapahit did not exist, for it was not founded till after the middle of the thirteenth century, and it is unhistorical to represent it (p. 28) as claiming suzerainty over the South of the Peninsula up to 1478. Long before that time its greatness, which culminated about a hundred years before, had become a thing of the past. Even prior to 1415 Malacca had (wrongly) laid claim to the possession of Palembang, then held by Majapahit. On the other hand, the date 1478 for the final fall of Majapahit rests merely on popular tradition and is too early by about forty Nor is there any evidence that Majapahit ever "harried" Langkasuka (p. 32), or that the latter state is to be identified with Ligor (pp. 17, 32). In 1365 Majapahit included Langkasuka in a list of its alleged vassals, but Ligor had been reached by the Siamese in their southern campaign

of conquest some eighty years before that time, so there seems little likelihood that they can be the same place. What warrant is there for the statement that Chinese contemporary records are explicit on the point of the ruling chief of Malacca being a Hindu in A.D. 1403 (p. 33)? So far as I am aware, they say nothing about it, and the author of the Ying-yai Sheng-lan (1416) distinctly states that both he and his people were Muhammadans in 1409. As the Chinese author had then visited the place, and was himself a Muslim, he would be certain to know. According to the Sejarah Melayu, the Běndahara Tun Mutahir (p. 47) was a brother of the Sultan's mother, and it was the latter, not the Sultan's wife (cf. p. 38), who had recommended him for his high office. Some of the Portuguese authorities also speak of the Běndahara as the Sultan's uncle, and there is no reason to doubt it. The Sultan's son (pp. 49, 51, 52, 56, 57) was Ahmad not Alaedin; the latter name was wrongly given him by some of the early European writers (such as Barros and Maffei), owing to a confusion with a younger brother of his who eventually succeeded to the There is no point in perpetuating such an error. The Portuguese authorities speak of Ruy d'Araujo, not d'Aranjo (p. 49 seq.). At the time of the fall of Malacca its Laksamana was neither Hang Tuah (as stated in the first edition) nor Hang Nadim (p. 52), but Khoja Hasan. is no reason to throw doubt (p. 53) on the Malay artillery, the Portuguese writers are perfectly explicit on the point that it was artillery, though mostly of small size. There is evidence that Sultan Alaedin II of Johor (p. 61) lived to A.D. 1564, and was then captured and killed by the Achinese. The pedigree and genealogical statements of pp. 73-4 are irreconcilable with the data of the Sĕjarah Mĕlayu, from which they purport to be drawn. The word daulat (p. 70) should properly be tulah (though Malays sometimes confuse the two). The pedigree on p. 83 differs materially, both as to facts and dates, from one which was given in 1855 by the then head of the family (Tijdschr. v. Ind, T. L. en Volkenkunde (1855),

Deel IV, p. 412), but I am not prepared to say which (if either) is right. On p. 96, for "about the year 1635", read "some time after the year 1636", and for "Bendahara Johor", read "Old Bendahara". On p. 133, "the close of 1873" should be "November, 1874", and on p. 141, 1874 should be 1875. I presume that the date 1860 on p. 158 is a misprint for 1869.

In spite of all these errors, the work is very good, and there is certainly no general sketch of Malay history in existence that is as scholarly, as interesting, and on the whole as true, as this one.

Supplement-Catalogus der Maleische en Minangkabausche Handschriften in de Leidsche Universiteits-Bibliotheek. Door Dr. Ph. S. van Ronkel. 9½ × 6, pp. xxiii, 216. Leiden: E. J. Brill, 1921.

The Leiden University Library is fortunate in the possession of a large collection of Indonesian MSS., which seems to be continually growing. Since 1899, when the former catalogue of Malay MSS. was published, there have been so many accessions that the present substantial supplement (in which Minangkabau works are also included) has been found necessary. I have not noticed any startling novelties amongst the Malay items recorded in it, and I cannot claim familiarity with the Minangkabau literature. But the catalogue has been prepared with all the scholarly care one would expect from its author and the distinguished institution in which he is a professor, and its printing leaves nothing to be desired.

C. O. Blagden.

The Phœnicians have still an interest for French writers. In England archæologists do not trouble themselves much

[&]quot;Phéniciens": Essai de Contribution à l'Histoire Antique de la Mediterranée. Par C. Autran. 12 × 9, pp. 146. Paris: Geuthner, 1920. 30 f.

about them nowadays. We have come to the conclusion that apart from their colonizing ability they were an extremely dull and uninteresting people, without art and without originality. Everything they made was copied from somebody else. The French, however, still find them worth writing about, and in the present instance we have a speculative French author who presents us with a very novel and revolutionary theory with regard to them, namely, that the Phonicians, to whom the Greeks ascribed their art and whom they regarded as their masters in civilization (absurdly enough, according to modern ideas of the real Phœnicians). were not the Semites of the Syrian coast whom we call Phænicians, but another race that lived in Phænicia before them. These people, according to their sponsor, M. Autran, were not Semites at all, but "Caucasians". What nowadays is meant by writing about "Caucasians" one does not attempt to explain; the term is entirely old-fashioned, and signifies little in the light of modern knowledge of ethnology. But the theory itself is "intriguing" enough. For M. Autran these proto-Phonicians were the Caro-Lelegians of later days, and none other but the Minoans and Mycenæans of Crete and Greece themselves, who came ex hypothesi from Phoenicia. It seems probable enough that when the later Greeks talked of Phœnicians as their fathers in art they really meant the Minoans, who had become confused in legend with the Phoenicians, who for a time penetrated into the Ægean during the Dark Age that accompanied the Indo-European occupation of Greece. But that Minoans ever formed a settled population in Phœnicia is not yet evident, and the proposition that there were no Semites there in Minoan times is directly contrary to the fact, as we know from the el-Amarna letters as well as Egyptian evidence. So far as we can go back, the population of Phœnicia was Semitic. Whether there was in the grey dawn of history, before Semites reached the coast, a Mediterranean native population, afterwards driven out or absorbed by the Semitic Phænicians, is

another matter. But such hypothetical non-Semitic proto-Phœnicians were long anterior to the Minoans in date. We can then modify M. Autran's thesis in the sense that we readily allow that the Greeks in talking of Phœnicians in old days really very often meant the Minoans or the Carian inheritors of Minoan culture. But when they did so they believed they were talking of the Semitic Phœnicians of Tyre and Sidon, and thereby showed themselves not very discerning in the matter; bad judges of character, in fact.

We must congratulate M. Autran on the skill and learning that he has brought to the elaboration of his thesis.

H. R. HALL.

Les Origines de Mahé de Malabar. Par Alfred Martineau. $9\frac{1}{2} \times 6\frac{1}{4}$, xvi + 319. Paris, 1917.

The port of Mahé, in Malabar, is the only French possession still remaining on the West Coast of India, and its small territory is now an enclave surrounded by the British district of Malabar. M. Martineau, who has lately brought out the first volume of a very important work on "Dupleix", gives in this volume a full account of the fortunes of this settlement from the date of its foundation in 1720 up to the outbreak of war between France and England in 1744. The main object of this post and of its English neighbour, Tellicherry, was to obtain command of the pepper-trade of Malabar, and the history of Mahé is mainly the history of the rivalry between the two competitors, generally confined to negotiations and intrigues, but occasionally bursting out into open warfare.

It is impossible here to attempt to follow the intricacies of this story, which is set out fully by M. Martineau, who relies mainly upon materials never before published. In succeeding periods Mahé changed hands more than once, but ultimately rested in French possession. In the course of time it has lost its former importance, and is now, like many of the old ports of the Malabar coast, without much activity but still interesting through its historical associations.

The name of Mahé seems to be derived from the Malayalam Mayyazhi, which the French used first in the form of Mayé. and very soon in the present form. Two hundred years before the Portuguese historian, J. de Barros, had used a very similar form Maim. Yet it has been commonly supposed, and is stated as a fact in the Malabar Gazetteer, that the name was taken from that of the French commander, Mahé de la Bourdonnais. M. Martineau's account gives no support to this supposition. He does not mention La Bourdonnais in connexion with the name, and as a matter of fact he was in the earlier days of the Settlement Governor of the French Isles (the Ile de France and Bourbon), and does not seem to have had any personal connexion with Mahé, beyond correspondence and assisting to fit out an expedition for its recovery in 1726, after the French had been expelled by the native The form Mahé had been in use for several years before that, and the correspondence between this name and La Bourdonnais's Christian name seems to have given rise to the legend. M. LONGWORTH DAMES.

- 1. Dupleix et l'Inde Française, 1772–1741. Par Alfred Martineau. $9\frac{1}{2} \times 6$, xi+534 pp., 2 plates, 3 maps. l'aris: E. Champion, 1920.
- 2. Dupleix and Clive: The Beginning of Empire. By Henry Dodwell. $9 \times 5\frac{3}{4}$, xix + 277. London: Methuen & Co., 1920.

Two important volumes dealing with the relations of France and England with India in the eighteenth century have appeared lately. The first of these is an instalment of a life of Dupleix, by M. Alfred Martineau, late Governor of French India, and at present Director of the Ministère des Colonies. This work is very full, and is mainly based on hitherto unedited materials. The present instalment, a well-printed and fully illustrated volume of 534 pages, is an account of Dupleix's early life, of his work at Pondicherry from 1722 to 1731, and of his administration

of French factories in Bengal from 1731 to 1742. At the latter date he was appointed to be Governor of all the French establishments in India, and from this point until his recall to France in 1756 is the period of his greatest and most important activity. Nothing regarding this period is dealt with in the present volumes, but M. Martineau proposes to give the history of the momentous events of these fourteen years in two succeeding volumes, the appearance of which will be expected with interest, for it is evident that the author, as he shows in the present volume, is well qualified for the task, and that he will treat it in a spirit of impartiality and with full regard to historical accuracy. Dupleix's earlier career at Pondicherry is not of the highest interest. No great questions were involved, the establishments, both English and French, were purely commercial, and the great rivalry of later years had not developed.

Dupleix's personal relations with his superiors seem not to have been of the happiest nature, and with one, Lenoir, he appears to have been in a state of perpetual enmity. With Dumas he was for some years on good terms, but in time his feelings with regard to him also underwent a change. Nor could he forgive La Bourdonnais for having obtained the government of the Isles (I'Ile de France), to which he conceived himself to be entitled. Greater interest attaches to Dupleix's administration of the Bengal factories. It seems to have been fairly successful, amicable relations were generally maintained with the Nawab of Bengal, as well as with the English and Dutch trading establishments. The invasion of Nādir Shāh seems to have caused some apprehension, but Bengal was too far removed from the centre of the Empire to be seriously affected, and the foreign merchants remained undisturbed.

Chapter X deals with an episode of interest to numismatists. Dupleix endeavoured to obtain the consent of the Nawab of Bengal to the grant to the French of a privilege already enjoyed by the English and Dutch, that of

taking their silver bullion direct to the Murshidabad mint, and having it there coined into rupees of the recognized Imperial currency. The affair was complicated by the fact that the French had already obtained in South India a grant going far beyond that claimed in Bengal. They had for many years been allowed to take their silver to the Arcot mint and to have it coined there, but in 1736 they succeeded, by dint of heavy bribes to the persons whose interests were affected, in obtaining the privilege of striking the rupees with the Arcot stamp at their own mint in Pondicherry. No such claim had been made by any of the Europeans trading in Bengal, which still formed an integral part of the Mughal Empire, but the French here were not granted even the privilege of having their silver coined at the established mint. They had to buy their sikka rupees through agents who made a great profit out of the transaction. All efforts to obtain this privilege failed, owing apparently to the fact that the sum of 40,000 rupees offered as a bribe was not sufficient to induce the interested parties to yield, and Dupleix did not think it worth while to make a higher bid. After 1736, however, when the French could strike rupees at Pondicherry, they expected to be able to circulate these freely in Bengal, but were soon disillusioned. There was, in fact, a considerable difference in value between the Arcot (or Pondicherry) rupee and the Imperial rupee of Murshidabad. The Arkot rupee was certainly less valuable, and it was believed that those struck at the French mint were still lower in quality, although this apparently was not correct. In any case, the assertion or belief had the effect of depreciating the French rupee, with the result that after all costs of exchange had been met 100 Arcot rupees exchanged only for 87 sikka rupees. An appeal was made from the local authorities to the Emperor, and after long discussions some concessions were made by which the French were allowed to take their bullion to the mint for coinage on the same terms as the Dutch, as regarded one-half of their requirements, and for the rest they could

circulate the Arcot or Pondicherry rupees at the ordinary trade batta, without extra charges. Dupleix had to make agift of Rs. 50,000 to obtain this grant, which he considered to be the best which could be expected. Dumas, however, who was governor of Pondicherry, was not at all pleased. He considered that the permission he had obtained to strike rupees at Pondicherry was thereby rendered useless, and a very acrimonious correspondence ensued. Dupleix adopted a tone not at all compatible with any form of official subordination, and his attitude goes far to explain his difficulties with his official superiors. He seems, however, to have made the best arrangement possible. the opinion of M. Martineau. The authorities of the French company, while blaming him for his insubordination, found at the same time that he was justified in the course he had taken on the rupee question.

Other interesting episodes are dealt with, but the book's chief value lies in the light it throws upon Dupleix's complex character, and on the gradual developments of the French influence in southern India. For the most important results of this development the later volumes of the series must be awaited.

The second volume to be considered is of a different nature. It does not deal minutely with the personal history of either Dupleix or Clive, but Mr. Dodwell gives a very valuable historical sketch of the important movements which took place after Dupleix's accession to the post of Governor at Pondicherry, and especially after news of the outbreak of war in 1744 had reached India. He relies to a great extent, like M. Martineau, on original materials existing in the records which have been preserved at Madras, and those in the India Office, and other records existing in England. For this task he was already well qualified by his work as Curator of the Madras Record Office. During the period immediately preceding the war known as that of the Austrian Succession, trade rivalry and jealousy between the French and English

companies had been gradually increasing. Both still regarded trade as their sole object, and political influence with the rulers of Southern India was desired solely as a means of promoting trade. But when war had once been declared, the maintenance of neutrality in India became difficult and ultimately impossible. Dupleix at first desired it, for Pondicherry, like Madras, was not in a state of defence, while an English squadron had arrived in Indian waters. He tried to obtain the continuance of an ancient agreement to observe neutrality, which the English Presidencies held was beyond their authority. From this time Dupleix devoted his energies to induce the local potentate most immediately concerned to enforce neutrality on the English, an attempt which did not meet with success. La Bourdonnais, meanwhile, arrived on the coast with a strong French squadron. The mismanagement of affairs by the English Commodore Peyton left Madras defenceless, and La Bourdonnais landed a force and took it in 1746. A violent quarrel broke out between him and Dupleix as to the disposal of the place, and La Bourdonnais sailed away with his squadron. important point in the end was that Dupleix became involved in difficulties with the Nawab of Arcot, who to enforce his policy of prohibiting hostilities on land attacked the French and attempted to drive them from Madras. His troops were defeated by the French in an action on the Adiyar river, and had to abandon their blockade of Madras. This action, as Mr. Dodwell shows (p. 20) has been exaggerated by historians, following Orme's lead, into a battle of great importance, and has been considered to be "the first considerable success obtained by Europeans over the country troops for over a century." Mr. Dodwell shows that this assertion is baseless, but that at the same time the efficiency and armament of European troops had been greatly improved, and that they had become more superior to Oriental troops than they had ever been before. As an example, it pointed out what could be done by small bodies of French or English troops when well

disciplined and armed, and this superiority was shared by the "country troops", when armed and led by European officers.

Dupleix was the first to take advantage of the new position. Peace was declared with England in 1748, Madras was restored to the English and Pondicherry was freed from further attacks by sea, but the way was open to establish French influence by giving the assistance of French troops to one or another of the numerous claimants to power among the fragments of the moribund Mughal Empire. The story of how this policy was carried out by Dupleix and Bussy, of its brilliant successes and ultimate failure, is told by Mr. Dodwell in the second, third, fourth, and fifth chapters of his work with greater accuracy and clearness than in any previous work on the subject. The causes of Dupleix's failure are seen to be of two kinds, military and financial. The military factor of greatest importance was the gradual adoption by the English of Dupleix's own methods. They saw clearly enough that as the French improved their position and influence with the local powers, this position was used to the injury of the commerce on which the Company depended, and which was the reason for its existence. They, therefore, steadily began to improve their own forces, and at the same time to take sides in the wars of the country, backing their own nominees or pretenders against those favoured by the French. In these struggles, although peace existed between the two nations, yet English and French troops were perpetually facing each other, fighting nominally not for their own country, but for the Nawab or Subadar who employed and paid them. The financial position was also difficult and complicated. The revenues of the Company and its remittances for trade purposes were encroached upon and almost swallowed up in the expenses of the numerous wars. The rulers who obtained the services of French troops were expected to pay for them, but their revenues were insufficient, and not only were the receipts irregular, but a large part of the money available went to increase the private fortunes of the officials high and low.

Difficulties were continuous, and the Company's managers in France were dissatisfied and angry. It was a dispute on such matters that led to the recall of Dupleix in 1754. Such was the state of affairs when war between England and France was declared in 1756.

The second part of Mr. Dodwell's book, which he calls "The English Achievement", is concerned with the remainder of Clive's career in India beginning with the resumption of war between England and France in 1756, and affairs in Bengał which led to the establishment of English rule in that province. Mr. Dodwell gives a lucid and illuminating account of these events, and especially insists, more fully perhaps than has been done hitherto, on the connexion between the French position under Bussy in the Deccan, and the English position in Bengal. And, indeed, in the chain of events there seems to have been something which it is difficult to call by any other name than chance or fortune. The position of Bussy in the Deccan enabled him to keep on foot at the expense of the Nizam forces which the French could not otherwise have maintained. the case of war breaking out again, these forces could be used against Madras, and it was determined by the Company that the English forces must be strengthened, and employed if possible in supporting the Mahrattas against Salābat Jang, who was backed by the French. A body of European troops was sent out under Clive, who was just then returning to India. They arrived at Bombay in 1755, the plan being that they should be used to support Balaji Rao. The Bombay Government, however, did not enter into the scheme with any heartiness, and diverted Clive and his force with Watson's flotilla to attack a pirate nest under Gheriah or Angria at This caused delay and dis-Vijaydrug, on the west coast. location in the arrangements, and when at last it had been determined to dispatch the expedition, war being imminent, news suddenly arrived of the fall of Calcutta. The Deccan schemes were abandoned, and Clive and the troops available

in time found their way to the Hugli. Mr. Dodwell's remarks (p. 99) are worth quoting: "Had we," he says, "been finally committed to the Deccan expedition when Calcutta was lost, Clive could not have sailed for its recovery, and the course of events in Bengal might have been widely different. It was therefore fortunate that in 1756 Bombay preferred its local interests in attacking Gheriah to the general interests of the nation in attacking Bussy. But it was the fortuitous concourse of events that converted a stupid blunder into a lucky abstention. The Deccan could never have afforded the resources which, derived from Bengal, permitted the capture of Pondicherry in 1761... The Bombay policy was wrong in spite of its issue; the Madras policy was wise in spite of the difficulties in which it might have involved us."

This may serve as an example of the manner in which Mr. Dodwell often throws a ray of light on a confused and entangled state of affairs. There are other instances in the remainder of the book, but space does not permit further details. It is a masterly review of the well-known military and civil events of the period, and sets forth in a clear light the merits of Clive's civil administrations and the firm basis which it laid for future developments. The military events are well dealt with, although Mr. Dodwell seems to place the battle of Plassey on too low a level as an achievement. Surely considering the conditions under which wars were waged and battles fought in India at that period it was a remarkable victory. Mr. Fortescue, an excellent judge, takes a much more favourable view in the brilliant account of Indian operations in vol. iii of his history of the British Army.

Mr. Dodwell's volume, taken altogether, is probably the best history available of this interesting period, and will be indispensable to all students of the subject.

M. Longworth Dames.

LA CITÉ DE DAVID: COMPTE: RENDUS DES FOUILLES EXÉCUTÉES, SUR LE SITE DE LA VILLE PRIMITIVE, CAMPAGNE 1913-1914. Par RAYMOND WEILL. 10 × 6½, 219 pp., with sketch-plans, etc., and an album of plates, 13 × 10. Paris: Librarie Paul Geuthner, 1920.

This is a book we ought, in all probability, to regard as the standard work dealing with the excavations made upon the site, at least until superseded by something based upon more thorough excavations, though it must be admitted that it is doubtful whether any really valuable complementary work in "David's city" will be carried out. Notwithstanding that the extent of ground excavated was small-about 82 yards square-a considerable amount of interesting data were. obtained. As will be remembered, the tombs of the kings of Judah were located here, and it was this circumstance which made it the principal objective of the French explorers. The task which they set themselves was the clearing of all the tract near the acropolis, and the amount of soil which had to be removed was considerable. The results, however, were exceedingly satisfactory, for in the course of the work, in which the Roman, Jewish, and Canaanite layers were successively encountered, important monuments and general indications of an interesting nature came to light. From the top to the bottom of the hill, under the wall on the crest, appeared the details of the staged fortification of which the system could be analysed and the history reconstructed. Inserted in the layers of the superimposed slopes tombs and other remains of Canaanite and Jewish occupation have been found. These are similar to Parker's finds on the same watershed at the northern angle of the acropolis, "which still conceals archæological treasures."

On the plateau, the explorers found themselves upon ground largely devastated by the quarrymen of the Roman period, but they were rewarded, on the other hand, by the discovery of materials and the Greek inscription referring to the buildings there—the khan, bathing establishment, and synagogue.

Lower down are chambers used as tombs, and belonging to the burial places founded by David in the ancient citadel, where he and the first twelve of his successors were interred.

Notwithstanding the extent of the tract excavated, there is no doubt that the burial-ground covered a much larger surface, and the remainder will doubtless be recovered by continuing the excavations north and west of that already cleared. This, however, with the neighbouring portions which ought to be excavated, means a vast amount of digging when the work is resumed.

On the whole, the excavations made on the site of David's city were of considerable importance. All the work executed is very minutely described, and with all the systematic arrangement for which French writers are renowned. Sketches enable the details to be followed, and the album, which contains twenty-six plates, gives plans of the primitive city, the hill of ed-Dahoura, the principal excavations, "Tombeau T1," and an interesting series of half-tone views, which include the principal excavation, the walls laid bare, the cavern of Tomb T7, with the skeleton which it contained, the funerary furnishings of the Canaanite period, the quarries, etc., etc. There is no index, but the contents of the volume and its accompanying "album" are given at the end. The continuation of the work is greatly to be desired.

T. G. PINCHES.

RECORDS FROM ERECH: TIME OF NABONIDUS (555-538 B.C.).

By RAYMOND PHILIP DOUGHERTY, Ph.D., Professor of Biblical Literature in Boucher College. 11½ × 8½, 47 pp. and 84 plates. Yale Oriental Series, Babylonian Texts, vol. vi. Yale University Press; London: Humphrey Milford; Oxford University Press. 1920.

Though the museums of the world possess thousands of Babylonian contract-tablets, the number of known documents of this class continues to increase. In many cases their sameness is monotonous, but they are usually well worth studying, and that is in a marked degree the case in the present work. This is due to the fact that Erech was an important religious centre—the seat of the worship of Anu. the heaven-god, and Ištar, the Babylonian Venus. These inscriptions show, morever, that the temples and consequently the priesthood of Erech held a more important place in the life of its inhabitants than seems to have been the case in other religious centres of Babylonia, including even Babylon, and perhaps also Sippar, the principal seat of the sungod-worship. It is therefore possible that its position as second on the list of the cities of Nimrod's kingdom, "Babel, and Erech, and Accad, and Calneh," may be due to this fact.

The texts new published show that Erech was a city much favoured by royalty, and this favour it apparently strove to maintain by encouraging the king and the crown prince (Nabonidus and his son Belshazzar) to hold office or to interest themselves in the religious foundations of the place. As the tablets of the Harding Smith collection (published by me in the Proceedings of the Society of Biblical Archivology for January, 1916, pp. 27–54) show, the scribes of Erech give important details concerning Belshazzar's position in Babylonia (as they do also with regard to the status of Gobyras, otherwise Darius the Mede), and from the present volume, with its 246 autographed inscriptions, these details are confirmed and supplemented.

One of the most interesting inscriptions referring to Nabonidus is No. 11, which is described as a lease granted by Nabonidus. This is an inscription of thirty-two lines, in which two men, Sum-ukîn and Kalbaya, pray the king to grant them additional lands to cultivate, and on which to raise livestock for the temple of the Lady of Erech. The field requested lay ina éli mé, "upon the waters"—probably meaning by the side of a river or canal. Whilst the tract was in the possession of the leaseholders, it was stipulated that the cattle should not be allowed to die off, so all those which

were born on the estate were to be reported to the king's messenger, who branded them with the mark of the Lady of Erech. The text gives many other noteworthy details, and is of considerable importance in connexion with the ways of the religious community located of old in Erech. The date of the document is the 29th of Nisan in Nabonidus's first year.

A tablet of a similar nature is No. 150, containing thirtyfive lines of writing. It is described as "A lease of land from Belshazzar". In this text the applicant for the lease is Ibnî-Ištar, an official of the Lady of Erech. How far, therefore, this may be described as a lease, is doubtful. This official, as in the former case, applies-not to the king, but to the crown prince- for permission to take up the cultivation (of land requiring, for seeding), 825 gur of grain as his bit šipri, which probably means "the house" or "place of his commission "-that is, the tract he desired to administer for the benefit of the temple. It was situated in the pasture-enclosure of the Lady of Erech, which lay in the sumantar district, and entailed the command of 100 men, with 100 oxen, and 50 fullgrown cows belonging to the king's son, (each) "a bearer", and in return for this concession Ibnî-Ištar promises to hand in 3,000 gur of mature barley, by the king's measure, during the year (or yearly). The bargain having been agreed to, certain stipulations are made which include 3,000 trusses of straw. The transaction is dated in the eleventh year of Nabonidus. Other texts referring to Belshazzar are those which record the oath which, in Babylonian affidavits, were sworn and which tend to show that Belshazzar was on the same footing as the king, his father.

It is impossible to touch upon a tithe of the interesting details which these inscriptions contain, but a few more items may be noted. Thus, one of the tablets (No. 154) records how "a widow... owing to a famine in the land, marks her two little sons with a star, and gives them to the temple for life." The name of the woman was Banât-Innin ("the goddess of Erech's creation"), but the boys' names are compounded with

that of the sun-god, and appear as Šamaš-êriba and Šamaš-îli ". The officials of E-anna (the temple of Ištar of Erech) heard Banât-Innin's request, and gave food to the children, who remained devotees of the goddess for the remainder of their lives.

No. 224 has the description "Legal action with reference to a man whose grandmother had been dedicated to the Belit of Erech." The text begins with a list of the officials and free-born citizens of Erech before whom the inquiry took place, and also the officials of E-anna, who conducted it.

Addressing Šamaš-šum-iddina, the officials said: "Thou art the son of Silim-Ištar, daughter of Haršinana, the širkatu of the Lady of Erech." Šamaš-šum-iddina answered "Babuni, daughter of Iddina-Marduk, has confirmed the declaration of Silim-Ištar, my mother, and Haršinana, my grandmother—through her (are) the confirmations".

The mayor of Erech, the steward of È-anna, and the king's representative, brought Babunu, and she invoked the spirit of the gods and the king in the assembly, (saying) that "I have not seen the star-sign and the curses on the hand (or wrist) of Haršinana, handmaid of Iddina-âḥu, my father's brother, grandmother of Šamaš-šum-iddina, whom Iddina-âḥu, my father's brother, before she brought forth, declared free to the Lady of Erech for the position of širkatu."

Here follows the name of the scribe and the date: "additional month of Adar, day 3rd, year 15th, Nabonidus, king of Babylon."

In the introduction the author has several notes upon the office of *širku* (or *širqu*, as he transcribes it). That it designated some order of devotees (*širkatu* in the fem.) is clear, but just what it implies is doubtful.

Though short, the introduction is very interesting, and the whole work shows care and technical skill. There are lists of names of men, places, canals, and gates; and a catalogue of the contents.

T. G. PINCHES.

DIE ANFÄNGE DER CHINESISCHEN GESCHICHTSCHREIBUNG. Von A. ROSTHORN. 10×6 , 28 pp. Wien bei Alfred Hölder. 1920.

The first nineteen pages of this pamphlet are devoted to an analysis of Chinese historical literature as it exists to-day; the remaining nine pages to a summary of Liang Ch'i-ch'ao's essay on the reform of historical writing in China. The author of the essay visited Europe in connexion with the Paris Conference, and is probably known to many readers of this Journal. His chief ground of complaint against Chinese historical books is that they are in some ways different from European works. They do not attempt to trace "influences" or construct a "philosophy of history". For this abstinence many readers will be thankful. What a "philosophy of history" is or should be Mr. Liang apparently makes no attempt to explain. As for "influences", those generalizations so dear to History Dons, we get on very well without them. Chinese histories are essentially books of reference. Mr. Liang complains that it would take forty years to peruse them all. It would, we may reply, take a considerable time to read through the Encyclopædia Britannica and Dictionary of National Biography. Weary of the objectivity of Chinese chronicles, Mr. Liang falls in love with Herbert Spencer. We, sated with empty theorizations, welcome the bald annals and formal biographies of China, and would gladly make an offer for Mr. Liang's discarded library!

A. WALEY.

Chinesische Schattenspiele. Herausgegeben von Wilhelm Grube and Emil' Krebs. 12×9 , iii+754 pp. Leipzig: Otto Harrassowitz, 1915.

The 752 handsome pages of this book contain the unannotated Chinese texts of about sixty shadow-plays. In 1901 Berthold Laufer purchased for the American Museum in New York a large manuscript collection of these plays. Wilhelm Grube undertook the translating and editing of the

texts, and after his death in 1908 the work was carried on by Herr Emil Krebs. The plays are here arranged in categories, such as Buddhist, Taoist, historical, etc. In some cases more than one version is given. The dialogue is in Pekin colloquial; the lyrics, in the language of classical poetry. Many European readers will therefore find themselves in the position of being able to read only a part of each play. Fortunately, a translation of the plays (by Grube and Krebs, with introduction by Laufer) was published in the Abhandlungen der Königlich Bayerischen Akademic, xxviii Bd., 1915. It must be confessed that they make heavy reading; but it would not be fair to judge of them apart from actual performance. Certainly the texts stand no higher as literature than those of "legitimate" Chinese drama.

A. WALEY.

Tree and Bird as Cosmological Symbols in Western Asia. By Professor A. J. Wensinck. $10\frac{3}{4} \times 7\frac{1}{4}$, pp. xi -49. Amsterdam: Johannes Mueller, 1921.

Professor Wensinck is finishing with this book a trilogy of investigations which he has carried on concerning the conception of the Navel, the Ocean, and now the Tree and Bird in Semitic Mythology, if the latter word is not too wide, covering perhaps a larger space than the author intended. In any case Professor Wensinck tries to find an explanation for some curious traditions connected with the tree, starting with the Babylonian Legends, of the Journey of the Hero in the Gilgamesh Epic. A peculiar tree is mentioned there made of precious stones and radiating in many colours. Professor Wensinck identifies first this tree with the sun, and then traces this legend in its wandering from east to west as far as the Straits of Gibraltar. These latter take the place of the ancient cleft through the mountains in the Babylonian legends through which the sun passes in rising and setting.

He is thus then able to throw a new light on many of the

pictures of Assyrian seals and cylinders and to interpret their symbolical meaning. A large number of such illustrations accompany the text.

Incidentally Professor Wensinck refers also to the gigantic Bull pursued and killed by its natural enemies. In this connexion one might mention also the famous gigantic Ox of Jewish traditions, on which the pious will feast after the advent of the Messiah. It is another form which the legend of the Behemoth has assumed to which Professor Wensinck refers.

The final portion of the book deals with the bird which in the legendary form appears in an extraordinary character, and more especially in Mohammedan traditions. Professor Wensinck identifies these birds also with the sun. Of course, the Phœnix occurs among them, and the legend of the eagle, which in a simpler form is already found in the ancient Physiologus, by centuries older than any written record of Islamic literature.

It would be an interesting problem to investigate afresh and on a more comprehensive scale than has hitherto been the case the probable sources of the Mohammedan legends. Professor Wensinck has been well advised in adding a complete index to all the three publications. The book is a valuable contribution to the study of Comparative Mythology.

M. G.

OBITUARY NOTICES

Lord Reay

From the public point of view the career of Lord Reay, whose death took place on August 1, has been commemorated with due appreciation in the Times and other organs of the Press; and many more tributes from institutions and societies which had benefited by his wise and moderate counsels, his statesmanly instinct, his accomplishments and experience, and his distinguished and courtly presence will, no doubt, be placed on record. The Royal Asiatic Society, of which he had been President since 1892, may claim to have enjoyed a full share in his regard. He seldom failed to be in the chair at its public gatherings or at the meetings of its Council. He was always in close touch with the work of the honorary and permanent officials; all important proceedings were discussed with him, and, even when the course actually followed had not his entire concurrence, it generally bore the impress of his advice.

From the admirable obituary notice in the *Times* we are permitted to quote the following summary account of his lordship's ancestry and early career, as well as to extract some other particulars:—

"The Scottish peerage of Reay was created in favour of Donald Mackay of Far, chief of the clan Mackay, in 1628. This restless soldier was one of the many Scots who during the long peace which followed the accession of James VI to the English crown sought fame and reward in the Continental wars. He was succeeded in the title by his son John, who remained loyal to the Stuarts during the Commonwealth. The second Lord Reay had two sons, Donald, who never succeeded to the title, but was ancestor of the subsequent peers until the death of Eric, the ninth Lord,

in 1876; and Æneas Mackay, colonel of the Scots regiment in Holland, from whom the late Lord Reay was descended. Æneas was the father of another Colonel Æneas Mackay, who by his marriage brought the Dutch estate of Ophemert into the family. He was the first of the Mackays settled in Holland who accepted permanently the foreign domicile. His son, Baron Barthold Mackay, served in the Dutch Navy; and his grandson, Baron Æneas, who eventually succeeded to the Scottish title, was a Minister of State and Vice-President of the Council of the Netherlands. Baron Æneas married a daughter of Baron Fagee, a distinguished Dutch statesman, and became the father of the late peer.

"Born on 22nd December, 1839, Baron Mackay was educated at the Gymnasium at the Hague, and at the University at Leyden, where he graduated in Laws. After graduating he entered the Dutch Foreign Office, and was appointed an honorary attaché to the Dutch Legation in London. He was then transferred to the Dutch Colonial Office, in which he held for a short time the post of an Assistant Secretary. This he resigned in 1866, in order to make a tour through the United States, for the purpose of studying the social and political condition of the country at a particularly interesting period of reconstruction. On his return to Holland he was elected president of a society for the promotion of manufactures and handicrafts, and in that capacity he organized the first industrial exhibition which was ever attempted in Holland. In 1871 he was returned to the Chamber of Representatives of the States-General as Liberal member for Tiel. The subjects which most engrossed his attention were those relating to the social well-being of the people and to the Colonies. He was again returned to the Chamber of Representatives in 1875, the year in which his father succeeded to the Scottish title of Reay, on the death of the ninth baron. The succession was a barren honour, for the ancestral estates, 'the Reay country,' had been alienated by Eric, the seventh lord, in 1829. The tenth

Lord Reay remained in Holland, where he died in 1876, and the title devolved upon his son.

"The new peer decided to take up his residence in England. In 1877 he resigned his seat in the Dutch Chamber of Representatives, and became naturalized as a British subject. In the same year he married Fanny Georgiana Jane, the widow of Alexander Mitchell, M.P. This lady possessed considerable estates in Berwickshire, and thus Lord Reay was enabled to assume with dignity the position in Scotland which was due to the Chief of the Clan Mackay. As a Scottish Liberal peer, he had little opportunity of taking any practical part in politics until 1881, when he was created a baron in the peerage of the United Kingdom. Meanwhile he had been studying the social and economic conditions of England and Scotland, and was president of many useful societies and congresses for the advancement of social and intellectual interests. In 1884 he was elected Rector of St. Andrew's University."

Lord Reay's connexion with India was initiated by his appointment in 1885 as Governor of the Bombay Presidency, in succession to Sir James Fergusson. His tenure of the office was a marked success, and it was attended by progress in many departments, such as railways, forestry, and local government. The greatest achievement of his time is held to be the Bombay Municipal Act. But the subject which probably ranked first among his interests was education. It fell to him to develope and apply to the Bombay Presidence the conclusions of the Education Commission, presided over by Sir William Hunter, which issued its voluminous report in 1883-4. It was in the field of primary education that the most important advance was made by Lord Reav. technical education was recognized by him in its full significance for India; and under his auspices was founded the Victoria Jubilee Technical Institute, which achieved an "extraordinary initial success", and the Reay workshops were attached to the school of art. Agricultural education was encouraged in connexion with the College of Science at

Poona, and in 1886 the Bombay Veterinary College was opened. Lord Reay also took measures to foster education in special parts of the country, such as Sind and Gujarat, and among particular communities, for example the Muhammadans and Lingayats, "depressed classes" and aboriginal tribes. The main tendencies of his policy were to the encouragement of private enterprise and of practical aims. An address which he delivered before the Convocation of the Bombay University in 1889 deserves to be read by all persons interested in Indian education.

Of his position as Governor Lord Reay had a very clear conception. In his dealings with his Council and with the Secretariat there were some original features. His methods were calculated to maintain his independence, and his appointments were not invariably under the sway of routine. Among the members of his council one on whom he much relied, especially in legal matters, was Sir Raymond West, who afterwards served our Society as Vice-President and Director under his Presidency. Other colleagues in the Bombay administration who were then or subsequently connected with the Society were Sir William Lee-Warner, Col. G. A. Jacob, and Dr. Fleet. Many distinguished Orientalists and members of the Bombay branch — we may mention Dr. Bhagvanlal Indraji, Mr. Justice Telang, Mr. Justice Ranade, Sir R. G. Bhandarkar, Mr. Justice Tyabji, Professor Bühler, Professor Kielhorn, Sir Narayan Chandavakar-worked with or under him or came in contact with him.

Lord Reay manifested an active interest in humanitarian and charitable works, in which sphere he was ably seconded by his wife. It was said that never had Bombay founded so many and such useful institutions as during his time, and that, having found the city proud of its architecture, he left it proud of its hospitals, laboratories, and asylums. He had an extraordinary success in eliciting private munificence. "There was scarcely a single movement of this kind in the

Presidency which had not felt the beneficial touch of his helping hand." In company with Lady Reay he was also influential in promoting social intercourse not only between European and Indians, but also among the different native communities. Lady Reay also showed her care for the feminine portion of the population by the foundation and support of hospitals and by her encouragement of Purdah parties. These efforts, joined to his lordship's gracious courtesy and charm of manner, won him a marked popularity among all classes. Professor Bhandarkar spoke of "the form which had become endeared to them". With the native princes in particular the Governor was successful in cultivating friendly relations. Quite a number of institutions in Bombay and the towns still bear his name or that of Lady Reay. In 1889 his portrait was installed in the Victoria Institute, and upon the termination of his Governorship a memorial fund was inaugurated, resulting in the fine marble statue by Gilbert, which adorns the vicinity of the present secretariat. proceedings in connexion with this fund and with the unveiling of the statue by Lord Sandhurst in 1895 are recorded in a brochure published in 1896. But for a full commemmoration of this eventful period in Lord Reay's career we must turn to Sir William Hunter's Bombay 1885 to 1890 (Oxford, 1892).

In 1892 Lord Reay became a member and later along with Sir Raymond West a Vice-President of the Royal Asiatic Society; in the next year he succeeded Lord Northbrook as President. At that time the governing body included, among others, such well-known scholars as Sir Henry Rawlinson (director), Professor Sayce, Sir Alexander Cunningham, Professor Robertson Smith, Sir Thomas Wade, Sir Monier Monier-Williams, Dr. Rost, while the office of Honorary Librarian was held by Dr. Codrington, and the secretary and assistant secretary were Professor Rhys Davids and Miss Hughes, all three, as well as Mr. James Kennedy, then an honorary auditor, destined to serve the Society during a long period under his Presidency. Lord Reay proved an ideal

chairman for the public meetings of the Society. His dignified figure and courtly manner, his gift of ready and pointed speech, on occasion his perfect command of the French language, lent a grace especially to the anniversary meetings, when the Society took stock of its achievements and prospects. In one of the first of these assemblages he dealt with a subject in which he was later to make a decisive intervention, namely, that of the establishment of a School of Oriental Studies in London. A notable occurrence in the first years of his tenure was the institution of a Triennial Gold Medal, which was first awarded to Professor E. B. Cowell in 1897. Subsequently, in consequence of the success in eliciting subscriptions with this object, a matter in which Mr. A. N. (now Sir Arthur) Wollaston was specially fortunate in eliciting the liberality of Indian princes, provision was made for a second medal, annually awarded for the best essay sent in by pupils from certain schools, and ultimately a sum was available for a third object, namely, a series of prize publications now numbering six volumes, of which the first was published in 1909. Through the liberality of Lord Northbrook and Mr. F. F. Arbuthnot, and the active exertions of the latter, the Society was able to found a new series of the Oriental Translation Fund, in which a large number of important works have appeared, Professor Rhys Davids' visit to India in 1899 resulted in a project for a series of volumes to be issued by the Society on behalf of the Government of India with the title Indian Texts Series. In the course of the protracted negotiations which followed a second series, entitled Indian Records Series, was added, and eventually the relation of the Society to both series, which are published by Murray, became rather that of a guarantor of their scholarly quality than an actual controlling authority. In 1907 a standing committee was appointed to deal with the matter; the proposed tale of volumes still awaits completion. Lord Reay took a personal part in the discussions and negociations connected with this matter

An important transaction of the years 1905-8 was the revision of the rules of the Society, in which the late Dr. J. F. Fleet took a prominent part. Of the reconstruction the leading feature was the provision for compulsory retire'ment from the Council after four years' service. During this period the proceedings of the Council and even of the general meetings were not always harmonious; and the President's reserve and moderation, as well as his occasional assertions of authority, were by no means out of place.

On June 2, 1903, an interesting letter, addressed to the Times by Dr. Sten Konow, of the University of Christiania, drew attention once more to the need of a School of Oriental Studies in London; and about the same time the Council had to deal with a proposal for a system of recommending teachers of the languages of the East. But it was perhaps Professor Rhys Davids' address to the British Academy in February, 1904, which gave the initiative. The first public outcome was a deputation to Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman, as First Lord of the Treasury, on December 4, 1906. The deputation, in which beside the British Academy a number of Societies, including our own, were represented, was headed by Lord Reay. Of the Treasury Committee appointed to take evidence and present a report his lordship was nominated The report and evidence, the latter contributed by many eminent scholars, British and Continental, were issued as a blue book in two parts during the year 1909. When the time came for giving effect to the Committee's recommendations (in 1909), the matter was referred to a new committee, of which the most prominent members were Lord Cromer and Lord Curzon, while Oriental scholarship was more particularly represented by Sir Charles Lyall, then one of the Society's Vice-Presidents, and also head of a department in the India Office. To the success of the labours of that committee it is unnecessary to refer. Upon the governing body of the School established in Finsbury Circus Lord Reay was naturally chosen as the Society's first representative: he resigned in 1916.

Another capacity in which his lordship maintained a close connexion with Orientalism was that of chairman of the the Board of Oriental Studies in the University of London. This position he held from 1901 to 1918, and until recent years he was usually present at the meetings.

We need not here do more than refer to Lord Reay's tenure of the office of Under-Secretary of State for India (1894-5), or of his work as Chairman of the London School Board (1897-1904). He was a prime mover in the foundation of the British Academy in 1902, and its first President (1902-7). He was also Vice-President 1892, President 1897 of University College and Chairman of its Council from 1908 until his death, and of the Institute of International Law and the Franco-Scottish Society. These pre-occupations did not detract from his interest in political matters or prevent his taking a distinguished part in the debates of the House of Lords.

An unfortunate accident in the year 1917, resulting in a broken thigh-bone, which refused to join, confined Lord Reay thenceforth to an invalid's chair. It did not, however, prevent his appearance at the meetings of University College and the Royal Asiatic Society. He was rarely absent. He took a keen interest in all the transactions connected with the Society's recent change of domicile; and in addition to his public appearances he was always ready to welcome the officials of the Society, once even the whole Council, to discuss matters with him at his house in Berkeley Square (No. 35). He presided with his wonted grace and cheerfulness at the last Anniversary meeting in May of this year, and at the last Council meeting in July. Those who consulted him just prior to his leaving London for the summer failed to note any signs of weakening interest or grasp of affairs; and in spite of his great age the announcement of his death, in the Times for August 2, came as a surprise. The Society sent wreaths to his funeral in Scotland, and at the memorial service in St. Columba's Church in Pont Street on August 4 it was, considering the holiday season, well represented.

Lord Reay was made a G.C.I.E. in 1887, and a G.C.S.I. three years later. In 1906 he became a Privy Councillor, and in 1911 the high honour of Knighthood of the Thistle was conferred upon him. Lady Reay died in 1917: there had been no children of their marriage. Interesting references to his lordship's literary and social life and to the Breakfast Club, of which he was a member, will be found in the volumes of the late Sir Mountstuart Elphinstone Grant Duff's Notes of a Diary (London, 1899).

F. W. THOMAS.

H.R.H. Prince Vajiranana

THE Society regrets to record the death of the Siamese Patriarch, His Holiness Prince Vajirañana. The Prince was Supreme Patriarch of the Buddhist Church in Siam, and his scholarship was of a high order. In 1898 he was elected Honorary Member of the Society, and on the occasion of his sixtieth birthday presented the R.A.S. with sixty pounds in honour of the event.

NOTES OF THE OUARTER

(August -October, 1921)

The title of Vāgīsha (Lord of Speech) has been conferred on Sir George Grierson by the Bihar and Orissa Sanskrit Association with the sanction of the Bihar and Orissa Government. The Society also congratulates Dr. F. W. Thomas (Hon. Secretary) on his election as Honorary Member of the Asiatic Society of Bengal and also as Foreign Member of the Norwegian Academy.

The following 41 members were elected at the General Meeting in June:—

Capt. R. C. Abraham.

Mr. K. L. Ahmad, B.A.

Mir M. Anwar Ali, P.C.S.

Babu A. C. Banerjea

Mr. H. Basu, M.A.

Mr. H. A. M. Belshah.

Mr. S M. Brown, D.F.C.

Mr. J. S. F. Campbell. Viscount Chelmsford.

Rev. H. Danby.

Mr B E. C. Davis, M.A.

Rev. T. Fish.

Mr. A. Frisby.

Mr. A. B. Gagendragadkar, M.A.

Rev. Prof. A. Guillaume.

Rev. T. M. Harden, LL.D.

Miss Harris.

Mr. A Hyman.

Mrs. H. Irwell.

The Imam Mustapha Khan.

H.H. Maharaja K. C. Roy Bahadur of Krishnagar. Mr. Louis Levi.

Dr. A. Marmorstein.

Mr. W. Miller.

Capt. Arnold Platts.

Miss H. A. E. Roberts.

Raja M. N. Roy, Chaudhury of Santosh.

Kunwar Shib S. Roy of Rajshahi.

Mr. E. Samuel, B.A

Mr. N. Sarif.

Mr. K. R. Sitaram, B.A.

Mr. J. E. Smart, B.A., M.C., etc.

Capt. P. F. Smith, M.C.

Mr. R. F. G. Swinson, B.A.

Mr. S. Tolkowsky.

Mr. S. S. G. Viran, B.A., etc.

Mr. G. M. Wallace.

Lieut. J. F. Ward.

Mr. R. N. Welingkar.

Mr. W. K. Wernham

Miss D F. Williams.

On 19th September Mr. Lee Shuttleworth, I.C.S., gave a most interesting exhibition of photographic enlargements of views in the Western Himalayas. He also showed a complete Tibetan Buddhist altar with all accessories and large numbers of Tibetan illuminations. During the course of the afternoon he threw on the screen numerous lantern transparencies, including many taken by direct colour photography.

Sir E. Denison Ross opened the session on 11th October with a paper entitled "The Red Sea at the Beginning of the Sixteenth Century". In November Professor Sayce reads one on "New Light from the East", and Mr. Campbell Thompson tells of "Modern Babylonia" in a lecture illustrated with slides, in December.

Corrigenda.—There is a mistake in the title of Professor Hagopian's review of the History of the Armenians in India (July Journal, p. 457). The reviewer wished to say that the work could be obtained at 12 Wellesley Square, East, Calcutta. Messrs. Luzac write to say that they were the publishers of the book in 1895, which is the right date, and not 1915 as stated in the review.

ADDITIONS TO THE LIBRARY

Books

- Antiquaries, Society of, Proceedings 1919-20. Vol. xxxii.
- Archæologia. Vol. lxx. 1918-20. From the Publishers. Archæological Department, Hyderabad. Annual Report, 1918-19. Calcutta, 1920.

- Archæological Survey, Memoirs No. 12. Astronomical Instruments in the Delhi Museum, by G. R. Kaye. Calcutta. 1921.
- Muhammadan and British Monuments. Northern Circle. Report ending 31st March, 1917-18-19-20. Progress Allahabad, 1921.
- ---- New Imperial Series. Vol. xli. Tile-Mosaics of the Lahore Fort, by J. P. Vogel, ed. by Sir J. Marshall. Calcutta, 1920.
- of Burma. List of Inscriptions found in Burma. piled by C. Duroiselle. Pt. i. Rangoon, 1921.

From the Government of India.

Archæology. Catalogue of Photographic Negatives in the Office of the Director-General, Simla. Calcutta, 1921.

From the Government of India.

Archives d'Étades Orientales. Vols. i, ii, iv, v (3 pts.), vi, viii, xvi. Uppsala, 1911-17. From Professor \bar{J} . A. Lundell.

Bell, C. A., Grammar of Colloquial Tibetan. 2nd ed.

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- 1919 STRINGER, E. W., The Café, Lymm, Cheshire.
- 1918 *Subrahmanya, Palamadai P., Sastri, B.A., Cathedral P.O., Madras.
- 1917 *SURYANARAYANAM, Satalur S., Lalagraharam, Madura.
- 1893 *†Svasti Sobhana, H.R.H. Prince, Bangkok, Siam.
- 1921 *Swinson, R. F. G., B.A., St. Stephen's House, Oxford.
- 1895*†\$SYKES, Brig.-Gen. Sir Percy Molesworth, K.C.I.E., C.B., C.M.G.
- 1910 *Tabard, Rev. Father A. M., The Cathedral, Shoolay, Bangalore.
- 1921 *TAGGART, W. Q., I.C.S., c/o The Secretariat, Rangoon, Burma.
- 1915 *TAGORE, Babu Kshitendra Nath, B.A., 6/1 Dwarkanath Tagore Lane, E. Gate, Jorasanko, Ca'cutta.
- 1875 *†TAGORE, Raja Bahadur Sir Sourendro Mohun, C.I.E., Mus.D.
- 1912 *Tahoor, Gholam, Interpreter, High Court, 44b Police Hospital Rd.,
- 1896 *Takakusu, Jvan, Ph.D., 902 Sendagaya, Tokyo, Japan.
- 1897 *TALBOT, Walter Stanley, C.I.E., c'o H. S. King & Co., 9 Pall Mall, S.W. 1.
- Hon. 1910 Tallqvist, K. L., Prof. of Oriental Literatures, Fabriksgasse 21, Helsingfors, Finland.
- 1921 *Tambe, G. C., B.A., Ll.B., Sec. to Maharashtrya Manakosh M. Ltd., Council Hall, Nagpur, C.P.
- 1913 *TAMPYAII, T. Isaac, Barr.-at-Law, 18 Beach St., Penang, Malay Peninsula.
- 1914 * TAMPI, Vatasseri Sri Velayudhan, son of H.H. Maharaja of Travancore, Trivandrum, Travancore.

- 1912 *TANNAN, Mohan Lall, Barr.-at-Law, Syd nham College Hostel, Chami Rd., Bombay, 4.
- 1916 *TANTRARATNA, Nutu G., Lalgola P.O., Murshidabad, Bengal.
- 1897 *TATE, George P., Ind. Survey D. pt. St. Quentin, Naini Tal, U.P.
- 1893 *TAW SEIN KO, C.I.E., K.-i-H., I.S.O., Peking Lodge, West Moat Rd., Mandalay, Burma.
- 1911 *†TEAPE, Rcv. Wm. Marshall, M.A., South Hylton Vicarage, Sunderland.
- 1879 *§Temple, Lt.-Col. Sir Richard C., Bart., C.B., C.I.E., F.S.A., Director, The Nash, Worcester.
- 1898 *Thatcher, Rev. G. W., M.A., Camden College, Sydney, N.S.W., Australia.
- 1920 *Thin, Maung Po, Extra Asst. Commissioner, Pegu, Lower Burma.
- 1921 *THIRTLE, Rev. David G., 23 Borthwick Rd., E. 15.
- 1905 *THIRTLE, James Wm., LL.D., 23 Borthwick Rd., E. 15
- 1917 *Thomas, E. J., M.A., Under Librarian, University Library, Cambridge.
- 1898 STHOMAS, F.W., Ph.D., HON. SECRETARY, Librarian, India Office, S.W. 1.
- 1918 THOMPSON, Sir Herbert, Bart., The Old House, Aspley Guise, Beds.
- 1907 *Thompson, J. P., I.C.S., c/o Grindlay & Co., 54 Parliament St., S.W. 1.
- 1919 *§Thompson, R. Campbell, M.A., F.S.A., Milburn Lodge, Boar's Hill, Oxford.
- Hon. 1909 Thomsen, Prof. Dr. Vilhelm, St. Knuds Vej 36, Copenhagen, Denmark.
- 1899 *§Thomson, H. Lyon, F.S.A.
- 1880 *†Thorburn, S. S., Bracknell House, Bracknell, Berks.
- 1912 *Thornton, H. A., Supt. N. Shan States, Lashio, Burma.
- 1903 *Tilbe, Rev. H. H., Ph.D., Amer. Baptist Mission, Riverview, Ahlone, Burma.
- 1921 *Tin, Hpay Maung, Exeter College, Oxford.
- 1921 *Tolkowsky, S., Tel-Aviv, Jaffa, Palestine.
- 1895 *†Travancore, H.H. Sri Padmanabha Sir Rama Varma Maharaja Raja Bahadur, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., of.
- 1921 *Trench, C. G. C., I.C.S., Commissioner of Sett'ements & Lands Records, Nagpur, C.P.
- 1917 *Tripathi, Prof. Deva Datta, Sahityacharya, Patna College, Bankipore, В. & O.
- 1918 *TRIPATHI, Pandit Ram P., Reader in Modern Ind. Hist., The University, Allahabad, U.P.
- 1921 *Trollope, Rt. Rev. Mark N., Bishop in Corea, Eng. Ch. Mission, Seoul, Corea, via Japan.
- 1912 *Troup, James, c/o Patrick Cooper & Son, 259 Union St., Aberdeen.
- 1919 *TRUMPER, Lt.-Commander V. I., R.N.R. (ret.), Hon. Sec. Pales'ine Exp. Fund, Maison Perrin, Port Said.
- 1902 *TSAIN, Moung, Pegu, Lower Burma.
- 1900 *Tuckwell, Rev. John, 1 Onslow Gdns., N. 10.
- 1912 *Turner, Prof. R. L., Sigrā, Benares, U.P.
- 1919 *Turner, Capt. Vere E., c/o Thomson, Lehzen & Co., Ltd., Chartered Bank Buildings, Calcutta.

- *UDAIPUR-MEWAR, H.H. Maharajdhiraja Maharana Sir Fateh Singh, Bahadur, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., G.C.V.O., Maharana of, Rajputana.
- 1919 *UI, Prof. H., c/o Sötöshū Daigalu Komanzawa Mura, Tokyo-fu, Japan.
- 1920 *URDHWARESHE, Waman Gopalrao, M.A., 34 Krishnapura, Indore City, Cent. India.
- 1919 *VAISHYA, Ramji D., F.R S.A., Sweet Cottage, Gwalior.
- Hon. 1898 Vajirañāna, H.R.H Prince, Pavaranivesa Vihāra, Bangkok, Siam.
- 1920 *VARMA, Gopi N. S., Zamindar, Mohalla Quanungoyam, Bereilly, U.P.
- 1921 *VARMA, Sheo Prasad, M.A., Prof of English, Robertson Coll., Jubbulpor :.
- 1884 *†VASUDEV, Madhav Samarth, R. R., B.A.
- 1913 *VIDYĀBHŪSANA, Pandit Upendranath, M.A., Sr. Prof. of Sunskrit, City College, Calcut a.
- 1921 *VIRAN, S. S. Guana, 1 York House, Gurlford Pl., W.C. 1.
- 1905 *Vogel, Prof. J. Ph., Ph.D., The University, Leiden, Holland.
- 1899 Vost, Lt.-Col. W., I.M.S., 26 Crystal Palace Pk. Rd., S.E. 26.
- 1908 *WACKERNAGEL, Prof. Dr. Jakob, University of Basle, Switzerland.
- 1892 *†WADDELL, Lt.-Col. L. A., C.B., C.I.E., LL.D., I.M.S., c/o H. S. King & Co., 9 Pall Mall, S.W. 1
- 1914 *Wahid, Maulvi Syed Abdul, M.A., Prof. Mayo College, Ajmer.
- 1912 *Wahshat, Raza Ali, Sahib-i-Diwan, 2/1/2 Dilkusha St., P.O. Ballygunge, Calcutta.
- 1919 WAITE, Mrs. A. R., 8 Mount Park Crescent, W. 5.
- 1920 *WALEY, A., Print Room, British Museum, W.C. 1.
- 1912 *†WALKER, Rev. C. T. Harley, M.A., 28 Warnborough Rd., Oxford.
- 1921 WALLACE, G. Malcolm, 31 Holmwood Rd., Bromley, Kent.
- 1907 *Walsh, E. H. C., C.S.I., I.C.S., Member Bd. of Revenue, Bankipur, 14 Linton Rd., Oxford.
- 1912 *WAR OFFICE. Officer in Charge, Far Eastern Sub-section, Whitehall, S.W. 1.
- 1919 WARBURTON, Rev. B. A., 90 Billinge Rd., Spring Bank, Wigan.
- 1921 *WARD, Lt. J. F., Selwyn College, Cambridge.
- 1916 *WARDROP, Oliver, C.M.G., M.A., Brit. Consulate Gen., 29 Rue Erckmann-Chatrian, Strasbourg, France.
- 1914 *WARMING, Gen. P. L. E., Bangkok, Siam.
- 1907 *Watson, H. D., I.C.S. (ret.), Upper Gates, Ryder Hill, Guildford.
- 1900 *Weir, T. H., B.D., Rockcliff, Bouling, Dumbartonshire.
- 1921 WELD-BLUNDELL, H., 17 Ovington Sq., S.W. 3.
- 1921 *Welingkar, Rainchandra N., Wadham College, Oxford.
- 1921 *WERNHAM, J. W. K., M.C., Waaham College, Oxford.
- 1921 *Westlake, A. R. C., Tremellyn, Mevagissey, Cornwall.
- 1882 WHINFIELD, E. H., 63 Beulah Hill, S.E. 19
- 1906 *WHITEHEAD, R. B., I.C.S., Lahore.
- 1921 WHYMANT, A. N. J., 90 Thornton Av., W. 4.
- 1919 *WICKHAM, H. T., Ind. Police, Bank House, Bartry, Yorks.
- 1899 *WICKREMASINGHE, Don M. de Zilva, Sch. of Oriental Studies, Finsbury Circus, E.C. 2.

- 1911 *WIJEWARDENE, Don Richard, Rickman House, Colpetty, Colombo, Ceylon.
- 1916 *WILBERFORCE-BELL, Maj. H., c/o Cox & Co., Rue Jeanne d'Arc, Rouen, France.
- 1913 *WILDER, Rev. G. A., M.A., D.D., Chicore Mission Sta., Chipinga P.O., Melsetter Dt., Rhodesia, S. Africa.
- 1921 *WILLIAMS, Miss D. D., 6 Norham Gdns., Oxford.
- 1915 *WILLIAMS, L. F. Rushbrook, B.A., B.Litt., O.B.E., c/o Home Dept., Gart. of Ind'a, Simla.
- 1919 WILLIS, G de I., Leconfield Estate Off., Ennis, Co. Clare.
- 1921 WILLOUGHBY-MEADE, G., c/o N. Brit. & Mercantile Ins. Co., Ltd., 60 Watling St., E.C. 4.
- 1919 WILLS, J. T., 6 Mortlake Rd., Kew.
- 1919 *WINCKWORTH, Chauncey, Fitzwilliam Hall Cambridge.
- 1912 *WINSTEDT, R. O., D.Litt., Asst. Director of Ed., Kuala Lumpur, Fed. Malay States.
- 1876 † WOLLASTON, Sir Arthur N., K.C.I.E., Glen Hill, Walmer, Kent.
- 1896 *Wood, J. Elmsley, 4 Glenisla Gdns., Edinburgh.
- 1907 *WOODLEY, Rev. Edward C., American Mission Seminary, Marash, Turkey in Asia.
- 1919 *Woolley, Capt. C. Leonard, R.F.A., Uplands, Bathwick Hill, Bath.
- 1909 *Woods, Prof. Jas. H., Ph.D., Harvard University, 179 Brattle St., Cambridge, Mass., U.S.A.
- 1906 *WOOLNER, A. C., M.A., 11 Racerource Rd., Lahere.
- 1900 *Workman, Mrs. Bullock, c/o Amer. Exp. Co., 6 Haymarket, S.W. 1.
- 1894 *WRIGHT, H. Nelson, I.C.S., Firu ood, Clevedon, Semerset.
- 1920 *WYNCH, Lionel M., C.I.E., C.B.E., 1.C S. (ret), Pine Hill, Camberley, Surrey.
- 1919 *WYNTER, A. E., M.D., M.R.C.S, L.R.C.P., 26 Oakfield Rd., Clifton, Bristol.
- 1919 *YAHUDA, Dr. A. S., 45 Brondesbury Rd., N.W. 6.
- 1911 *YAZDANI MAS'UDI, Ghulum, Supt. of Arch., Ni:am's Dominions, Hyderabud, Deccan.
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- 1921 *YETTS, Maj. L. M., M.C., c/o Civil Commissioner, Baghdad, Mesopotamia.
- 1910 §YETTS, W. Perceval, O.B.E., Jr. United Service Club, Charles St., S.W. 1.
- 1913 *Yusoof, S. Azhai, Yusoof Manzil, Civil Lines, Gaya, Bengal.
- 1921 *Yusur, Md., M.A., Head Master, Calcutta Madrasah, Calcutta.
- 1895 Yusuf-Ali, Abdullah ibn, C.B.E., I.C.S., M.A., LL.M., c/o King, King & Co., Bombay.
- 1913 *ZIMMERMANN, Rev. Robert, S.J., St. Xavier's Coll., Cruickshank Rd., Bombay.
- 1920 *Zutshi, Pandit Chand N., Rais, Asst. Ed. "Hitarada," Happy Cottage, Morar, Gwalior State.

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- 1898 H.R.H. Prince Vajirañana, Bangkok.

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- 1897 Professor E. B. Cowell.
- 1900 E. W. West.
- 1903 Sir William Muir.
- 1906 G. U. Pope.
- 1909 G. A. Grierson.
- 1912 J. F. Fleet.
- 1915 Mrs. Agnes Smith Lewis.
 - Mrs. Margaret Dunlop Gibson
- 1918 V. A. Smith.

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Allahabad: Public Library.

Allahabad University: History Department.

Athenæum Club.

Bâle: Bibliothèque de l'Université. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Library.

Baltimore: Peabody Institute.

Bangkok: Vajirañāna National
Library.

Bankipur: Patna College

Beirut: Syrian Protestant College. Benares: Hindu University.

Benares: Queen's College.

Berkeley, U.S.A.: Pacific School of Religion.

Bhavanagar: Samaldas College.

Rirmingham: Public Library.

Bombay: University Library.

Boston, U.S.A.: Museum of Fine

Arts.

Brighton: Public Library.

Bristol University.

British Museum.

Cairo: Institut Français.
Cairo: Ministry of Education.
Cairo: Sultania Training College.
Calcutta: Bangiya Sahitya Parishad

Calcutta : Bangiya Sahitya Parishac Mandar.

Calcutta: Imperial Library.

Calcutta: Indian Museum, Archæological Section.

Calcutta: Madrasah.

Calcutta: Presidency College. Calcutta: Ripon College. Calcutta: Sanskrit College.

Calcutta: Scottish Churches' College.

Calcutta: St. Xavier's College.

Calcutta: University Library.
Central Provinces: Chief Commissioner.

Chicago: Hibbard Egyptian Library.

Chicago: Newberry Library. Chicago: University Library. Cincinnati: Public Library.

Cleveland: Adelbert College Library. Constantinople: Robert College. Copenhagen: Royal Library.

Copenhagen: University Library. Cornell University Library.

Dacca: Jugannath College.
Dairen, Manchuria: Chosabu.

Detroit: Public Library. Dharwar: Karnatak College.

Duntroon, Australia: Royal Military College.

East India United Service Club. Edinburgh: Public Library.

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akuam: State Mus Cochin.

Florence: Biblioteca Nazionale.

Gauhati: Cotton College. Geneva: Bibliothèque Publique. Geneva: League of Nations.

Glasgow: Mitchell Library.
Gorakhpur: St. Andrew's College.
Goteborg, Sweden: Librarie

Wittergren.
Gupta, Babu Siva Prasad, Benares.
Gwalior State: Inspector of

Archæology. Harrow School: Vaughan Library.

Harvard College Library. Haverford, U.S.A.: College Library.

Helsingfors: Akademiska Bokhandeln.

Hong Kong University. Hosokawa, M., Esq., Tokyo. Hyderabad: Nizam's College. Hyderabad: Nizam's State Library.

Manchester University.

Manila: Bureau of Science.

Maynooth: St. Patrick's College.

Meadville, U.S.A.: Alleghany College

Rome: Institute Biblico Pontifico.

Brahmacharya-

Santiniketan:

Ashrama.

Indianapolis, U.S.A.: College of Library. Missions. Melbourne: Victoria Public Library. Ishihamo, J., Esq., Osaka. Michigan University. Jewish Theological Seminary o; Minneapolis Athenaum. America. Montreal: McGill University. Jodhpur: Marwar Museum and Muzaffarpur : Greer Bhumihar Library. Brahman College. Junagadh Archæological Society, Archæological Researches Mysore Kathiawar. Office. Kanazawa, Japan: Fourth High Mysore. Government Oriental Library. School. Mysore: Maharaja's College Union Khartoum: Director of Education. Mysore: University Library. Kyoto: Buddhist University Nagpur: Government House. Library. Newcastle-on-Tyne: Public Library. Kyoto: Indian Philosophy. York: Jewish Theological Dayanand Anglo-Vedic Lahore: Seminary. College. New York: Missionary Research Lahore: Dyal Singh Library Trust Library. Lahore: Forman Christian College. New York: Public Library. Lahore: Panjab Public Library New York: Union Theological Lahore: Panjab University. Seminary. 'ahore: Panjab Vedic Library. Niigata: Koto-Cakko. Liverpool: The Athenæum. Ottawa: Library of Parliament. Liverpool: Institute of Archæology. Oxford: Indian Institute. London Library. Oxford: St. John's College. London: Science Library. Paris: Banque Industrielle de Chine. Louisville, U.S.A.: S. Baptist Theo-Paris: Institut de France. logical Seminary. Patna: B. & O. Research Society. Lucknow: Canning College. Pavia: Università. Lucknow: Provincial Museum. Pennsylvania: Bryn Mawr College. Lucknow: Public Library. Peshawar: Archæological Survey, Lund: Kungl. Universitets Frontier Circle. Biblioteket. Philadelphia: Commercial Museum. Madras: Archæological Survey. Fhiladelphia Library Company. Madras: Connemara Public Library. Pittsburg: Carnegie Library. Madras: Kumbakonam College. Western Theological Pittsburg: adras: Seminary. National College Archæological Survey, Commerce. Poona: Madras: Oriental Manuscripts Western Circle. Pcona: Fergusson College. Library. Madras: Presidency College. Princeton: Theological Seminary. Princeton University Library. Manchester: Free Reference Library. Manchester: John Rylands Library. Rome: Biblioteca Apostolica Vaticana. Manchester: Lancashire Independent Rome: Biblioteca Nazionale. College.

Seattle: University of Washington.
Simla: Bureau of Education.
Srinagar: Sri Pratap Singh Museum.
Stationary Office.
Stockholm: Nordiska Bokhandel.
Stockholm: Royal Library.
Strasbourg: Bibliothèque Universitaire et Regionale.
Sylhet: Murarichand College.
Tinnevelly: Hindu College.
Tokyo: Institute of History, Imperial University.

Tokyo: Dr. G. E. Morrison Library.
Tokyo: Noshomu.
Tokyo: Shūkyo-daigaku Library.
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Utrecht: University Library.
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Varariddhi, H.R.H. Prince Nares,
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Winnipeg: University of Manitoba, Zurich: Bibliothèque Centrale.

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		July 1, 1920.	June 1, 1921.
Resident Members	•	128	153
Resident Compounders		17	8
Non-resident Members		575	632
Non-resident Compounders		63	62
Library Members		2	1
Honorary and Extraordinary Members		24	27
		809	883
Subscribing Libraries, etc	• .	143	169
Total		952	1052
			-